



Graduate School
of **BUSINESS**
UNIVERSITY OF CAPE TOWN

Academics' Organisational Identification and Commitment:
Influences of Perceptions of Organisational Support and Reputation

Submitted by: **Beverly Celia Shrand**
for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

Supervisor:
Associate Professor Linda Ronnie

Graduate School of Business
UNIVERSITY OF CAPE TOWN
2018

The copyright of this thesis vests in the author. No quotation from it or information derived from it is to be published without full acknowledgement of the source. The thesis is to be used for private study or non-commercial research purposes only.

Published by the University of Cape Town (UCT) in terms of the non-exclusive license granted to UCT by the author.

Declaration

I, Beverly Celia Shrand, hereby declare that the work on which this dissertation is based is my original work (except where acknowledgements indicate otherwise) and that neither the whole work nor any part of it has been, is being, or is to be submitted for another degree in this or any other university. I have not allowed and will not allow anyone to copy any part of this thesis with the intention of passing it off as his or her own work.

Signature:

Signed by candidate

Date: 8 June 2018

University of Cape Town

Graduate School of Business

Dedication

I dedicate this dissertation to the loving memory of my late mother, Anita Shrand. I am grateful for her encouragement in all my endeavours and her unconditional love. My mother taught me, among other things, about courage, resilience, and good humour in the face of adversity. Always in my heart and thoughts, she continues to inspire me.

Acknowledgments

I had heard “it takes a village” to produce a PhD thesis. This turned out to be true. I would like to express my deepest gratitude to every person who supported this process. Special thanks go to:

- Rael Shrand, my self-appointed “PhD coach”, with whom I shared my stresses, frustrations and triumphs. For the emotional support he gave me, his unwavering belief in me, and his constant encouragement. He was there for me every step of the way.
- Associate Professor Linda Ronnie, my supervisor, for her ongoing guidance, wisdom, and enthusiasm throughout the journey. For her friendship over the years, her desire to see me succeed, and for providing a sense of calm and reassurance.
- Mary Lister for being a librarian in a million, and always going the extra mile to help.
- Professor Jeffrey Bagraim and Dr Nceku Nyathi, for reviewing my proposal and providing constructive and encouraging feedback.
- My generous research participants, without whom this study would not have been possible, for their time and honesty. The institution’s HR representative (who must remain anonymous), for facilitating access to the database of academics.

Dr Jurgen Becker, for his passion and patience, and for teaching me more than I had imagined possible to learn about structural equation modelling.

- My esteemed GSB colleagues for their support and collegiality: Dr Kutlwano Ramaboa, Professor Geoff Bick, Professor Kurt April, Dr Ailsa Stewart Smith, Dr Badri Zolfaghari, Associate Professor Warren Nilsson, and Dr Tim London.
- Research Office colleagues: Professor Ralph Hamann, Associate Professor Stephanie Giamporcano, Vedantha Singh, Dr Charles Masango, and Dr Gaelle Ramon.
- My family and close friends, for their love, support, and not least of all, their understanding on the occasions when I was unable to join them because of my thesis.

Abstract

“Affective commitment” and “organisational identification” represent psychological relationships between employees and their organisations. These constructs are established predictors of turnover intentions, performance, and other desirable work outcomes. This study investigated the affective commitment and organisational identification of academics. It was argued that there is a strong need to understand how to nurture academics’ identification with, and commitment to, their institutions, since changes in the higher education sector have profoundly — and mostly adversely — impacted their work lives. Two specific status-related constructs are known to influence both identification and commitment: “perceived organisational support”, representing an informal status or internal respect, and “perceived external reputation”, a proxy for externally derived status. It was hypothesised that both these constructs would positively impact on affective commitment, and organisational identification, respectively. In addition to these direct effects, the study considered the mediation effects of organisational identification in the relationship between the two proposed predictors and affective commitment. Underpinned by social exchange theory, the social identity approach, as well as the group engagement model, the study contributes to research that seeks to understand how these theories complement each other and provide alternative mechanisms for explaining employee-organisation relationships. An explanatory sequential mixed methods design was used to answer the research questions. An online survey of permanent academics at one South African university generated 215 responses. This was followed by a qualitative phase, conducted with a subset of the survey respondents, comprising 15 semi-structured face-to-face interviews. Supporting the relevant hypotheses, perceived organisational support was found to influence affective commitment, both directly, and indirectly via organisational identification. However, contrary to expectations, perceived external reputation was found neither to impact on organisational identification, and nor on affective commitment in the presence of perceived organisational support. The qualitative insights revealed how each construct manifested in the context of the study, enriching the explanation of the results. Using the integrated findings, a new conceptual model of perceived organisational support, organisational identification, and affective commitment was proposed, incorporating potential influencing factors for each construct. It was suggested that university leadership would be well-advised to pay relatively more attention to the internal status that is conveyed to academics via perceptions of support from their institution, than to managing perceptions of the institution’s external reputation.

Table of Contents

Declaration.....	i
Dedication.....	ii
Acknowledgments.....	iii
Abstract.....	iv
Table of Contents.....	i
List of Tables.....	ix
List of Figures.....	xi
List of Appendices.....	xii
List of Abbreviations.....	xiii
CHAPTER ONE INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1. Purpose of the Study.....	1
1.2. Research Context: The Higher Education Sector.....	2
1.2.1. Global Trends in Higher Education.....	2
1.2.2. The South African Higher Education Sector.....	4
1.3. Theoretical Background and Conceptual Framework.....	6
1.4. Research Framework.....	9
1.4.1. Research Questions.....	9
1.4.2. Research Approach.....	9
1.4.3. Research Site.....	10
1.5. Significance of the Study.....	12
1.6. Contributions of the Research.....	14
1.6.1. Academic Contributions.....	14
1.6.2. Empirical and Practical Contributions.....	16
1.7. Overview of Thesis.....	17
1.7.1. Chapter One: Introduction.....	17
1.7.2. Chapter Two: Academics in Context.....	17
1.7.3. Chapter Three: Conceptual Framework.....	18
1.7.4. Chapter Four: Research Methodology.....	18
1.7.5. Chapter Five: Results and Analysis.....	18
1.7.6. Chapter Six: Discussion.....	19
1.7.7. Chapter Seven: Conclusion.....	19

CHAPTER TWO ACADEMICS IN CONTEXT.....	20
2.1. Introduction.....	20
2.2. The Higher Education Sector: Global Trends.....	20
2.2.1. Overview.....	20
2.2.2. Massification.....	21
2.2.3. Managerialism and Accountability.....	22
2.2.4. Marketisation and Privatisation.....	24
2.2.5. Consequences: The Shifting Roles, Identities and Morale of the Academic...25	
2.3. The South African Higher Education Context.....	29
2.3.1. Introduction.....	29
2.3.2. Historical Background.....	30
2.3.3. Evolution of the Sector: Structure and Governance.....	32
2.3.4. Public University Funding.....	35
2.3.5. The Student Body.....	36
2.3.5.1. Headcount Enrolments.....	37
2.3.5.2. Participation Rates.....	38
2.3.5.3. Throughput Rates.....	38
2.3.5.4. Student Dissatisfaction.....	39
2.3.6. The Academic Faculty.....	41
2.3.6.1. Size and Staff-to-Student Ratio.....	41
2.3.6.2. Temporary or Contract Staffing.....	41
2.3.6.3. Staff Profiles.....	42
2.3.7. The South African Academic Profession.....	46
2.4. Conclusion.....	49
CHAPTER THREE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK.....	52
3.1. Introduction.....	52
3.2. Affective Commitment.....	53
3.2.1. Defining Affective Commitment.....	53
3.2.2. Organisational Commitment.....	54
3.2.3. Organisational Commitment Outcomes.....	55
3.2.4. How Employee Commitment Develops: A Social Exchange Theory Lens56	
3.2.5. The Three-Component Model.....	57
3.2.5.1. Conceptualisation.....	57
3.2.5.2. Critique of the Three-Component Model.....	58
3.2.6. Why Affective Commitment Matters.....	59

3.2.7.	Antecedents of Affective Commitment	61
3.3.	Organisational Identification	62
3.3.1.	Defining Organisational Identification	62
3.3.2.	Why Organisational Identification Matters	63
3.3.3.	How Organisational Identification Develops: A Social Identity Theory Lens	63
3.3.4.	Antecedents of Organisational Identification	66
3.3.5.	Organisational Identification and Affective Commitment	67
3.4.	Perceived Organisational Support.....	69
3.4.1.	Defining Perceived Organisational Support	69
3.4.2.	Why Perceived Organisational Support Matters.....	70
3.4.3.	Antecedents of Perceived Organisational Support	71
3.4.4.	How Perceived Organisational Support Drives Work Outcomes.....	73
3.4.5.	Perceived Organisational Support and Affective Commitment.....	74
3.4.6.	Perceived Organisational Support and Organisational Identification.....	76
3.4.7.	Indirect Influence of Perceived Organisational Support.....	78
3.5.	Perceived External Reputation.....	79
3.5.1.	Reputation	79
3.5.1.1.	Reputation as a Stakeholder-Related Concept.....	80
3.5.1.2.	The Multidimensionality of Reputation.....	81
3.5.2.	Defining Perceived External Reputation	82
3.5.3.	Perceived External Reputation versus Perceived External Prestige	84
3.5.4.	Perceived External Reputation and Affective Commitment.....	86
3.5.5.	Perceived External Reputation and Organisational Identification.....	88
3.5.6.	Indirect Influence of Perceived External Reputation.....	89
3.6.	Conclusion	90
3.6.1.	Conceptual Model.....	90
3.6.2.	Summary	91
CHAPTER FOUR RESEARCH METHODOLOGY		92
4.1.	Philosophical Foundation.....	92
4.1.1.	Pragmatism as a Worldview	94
4.1.2.	Pragmatism and Mixed Methods	94
4.1.3.	Benefits and Challenges of Using Mixed Methods	95
4.1.4.	Research Questions and Mixed Methods Purpose Statement.....	96
4.1.4.1.	Primary Research Questions	96
4.1.4.2.	Mixed Methods Purpose Statement	96

4.1.4.3.	Quantitative Research Questions: Hypotheses	97
4.1.4.4.	Qualitative Research Questions	98
4.1.4.5.	Mixed Methods Research Question	98
4.1.5.	Explanatory Sequential Mixed Methods Research Design.....	99
4.1.6.	Mixed Methods Validity	101
4.1.7.	Visual Model of Explanatory Sequential Mixed Methods Design	102
4.2.	Phase One: Data Collection	104
4.2.1.	Quantitative Research Design.....	104
4.2.2.	Sampling	104
4.2.3.	Measuring Instruments.....	106
4.2.3.1.	Construct Measures.....	107
4.2.3.2.	Open-Ended Questions	109
4.2.4.	Instrument: Self completion Online Survey	110
4.2.5.	Pilot Survey.....	114
4.2.6.	Survey Response Rates	114
4.3.	Phase One: Quantitative Data Analysis	115
4.3.1.	Structural Equation Modelling and Terminology	115
4.3.2.	Quantitative Data Analysis Approach	117
4.3.2.1.	Data Preparation.....	117
4.3.2.2.	Treatment of Missing Data	117
4.3.2.3.	Sample Size.....	118
4.3.2.4.	Data Screening: Outliers, Linearity and Nonnormality	119
4.3.2.5.	Two-step Approach to Structural Equation Modelling.....	119
4.3.3.	Model-Fit Criteria	120
4.3.4.	Confirmatory Factor Analysis.....	121
4.3.4.1.	Model Specification	121
4.3.4.2.	Model Identification.....	122
4.3.4.3.	Confirmatory Factor Analysis Model Fit.....	123
4.3.4.4.	Model Parameters	123
4.3.4.5.	Confirmatory Factor Analysis: Validity and Reliability.....	123
4.3.5.	Structural Model Assessment	124
4.3.5.1.	Model Specification	125
4.3.5.2.	Model Fit Criteria	125
4.3.5.3.	Model Parameters	125
4.3.5.4.	A Note about Causality	126

4.4.	Phase One: Embedded Qualitative Data Analysis	126
4.5.	Interim Phase: Connecting Phases One and Two	127
4.5.1.	Sampling Approach	128
4.5.2.	Developing the Interview Protocol	130
4.6.	Phase Two: Qualitative Data Collection.....	131
4.6.1.	Pilot Interview.....	131
4.6.2.	Recruiting Participants.....	131
4.6.3.	Semi-Structured Interviews: Logistics.....	132
4.6.4.	Conducting the Interview.....	133
4.6.5.	Preparing the Qualitative Data for Analysis	136
4.7.	Phase Two: Qualitative Data Analysis	137
4.7.1.	Template Analysis as a Form of Thematic Analysis	137
4.7.2.	Qualitative Analysis Validity: “Trustworthiness”	141
4.7.3.	Reporting Results.....	143
4.8.	Integration of Phases One and Two	144
4.9.	Theoretical Assumptions	145
4.10.	Research Ethics	145
4.10.1.	Database access.....	146
4.10.2.	Quantitative Data Collection: Online Survey	146
4.10.3.	Qualitative Data Collection and Analysis: Semi-Structured Interviews.....	147
4.10.4.	Protection of the University’s Identity.....	147
4.11.	Conclusion	148
CHAPTER FIVE RESULTS AND ANALYSIS.....		149
5.1.	Phase One: Quantitative Results	149
5.1.1.	Descriptive Statistics.....	149
5.1.1.1.	Affective Commitment	150
5.1.1.2.	Organisational Identification	150
5.1.1.3.	Perceived Organisational Support.....	151
5.1.1.4.	Perceived External Reputation.....	152
5.1.1.5.	Descriptive Statistics Summary	152
5.1.2.	Bivariate Correlations	153
5.1.3.	Assessment of the Measurement Models.....	154
5.1.3.1.	Affective Commitment Measurement Model	154
5.1.3.2.	Organisational Identification Measurement Model	156
5.1.3.3.	Perceived Organisational Support Measurement Model	158

5.1.3.4.	Perceived External Reputation Measurement Model	159
5.1.4.	Structural Model Results.....	162
5.1.4.1.	Assessment of Model Fit	162
5.1.4.2.	Direct Effects	163
5.1.4.3.	Specific Indirect Effects.....	164
5.1.4.4.	Association between Independent Latent Variables	164
5.1.4.5.	Variance Explained by the Model - R Square (R ²)	165
5.1.5.	Conclusion	165
5.2.	Phase One: Embedded Qualitative Results.....	166
5.2.1.	Perceived External Reputation.....	166
5.2.2.	Working Environment	167
5.2.2.1.	Criticism of the Executive	168
5.2.2.2.	Lack of Organisational Support	169
5.2.2.3.	Transformation-related Issues.....	169
5.2.2.4.	Working Environment: Other	170
5.3.	Phase Two: Qualitative Results	171
5.3.1.	Affective Commitment	172
5.3.1.1.	Affective Commitment Descriptors	173
5.3.1.2.	Enablers of Affective Commitment	174
5.3.1.3.	Blockers to Affective Commitment	176
5.3.2.	Organisational Identification	178
5.3.2.1.	Enablers of Organisational Identification	179
5.3.2.2.	Blockers to Organisational Identification	180
5.3.2.3.	Reaction to Outsiders' Criticism.....	183
5.3.3.	Perceived Organisational Support.....	185
5.3.3.1.	Perceived Organisational Support: Satisfied/Not Dissatisfied	186
5.3.3.2.	Perceived Organisational Support: Dissatisfied.....	188
5.3.4.	Perceived External Reputation.....	190
5.3.4.1.	Comparison of Reputation Dimensions	190
5.3.4.2.	Salience of Perceived External Reputation.....	192
5.3.4.3.	Impact of Student Protests	194
5.4.	Integration of Results: Interpreting the Constructs	195
5.4.1.	Affective Commitment: Integrated Results	195
5.4.2.	Organisational Identification: Integrated Results	197
5.4.3.	Perceived Organisational Support: Integrated Results	199

5.4.4.	Perceived External Reputation: Integrated Results.....	201
5.5.	Conclusion	203
CHAPTER SIX	DISCUSSION	204
6.1.	Introduction.....	204
6.2.	Affective Commitment: Contextualisation and Influences.....	205
6.3.	Organisational Identification: Contextualisation and Influences.....	208
6.4.	Influence of Organisational Identification on Affective Commitment.....	212
6.5.	Perceived Organisational Support: Contextualisation and Influences.....	213
6.6.	Influences of Perceived Organisational Support.....	215
6.6.1.	Perceived Organisational Support on Affective Commitment	216
6.6.2.	Perceived Organisational Support on Organisational Identification	217
6.7.	Perceived External Reputation: Contextualisation and Influences	218
6.8.	Influences of Perceived External Reputation.....	220
6.8.1.	Perceived External Reputation on Affective Commitment	221
6.8.2.	Perceived External Reputation on Organisational Identification.....	222
6.9.	Mediation Effects of Organisational Identification	223
6.9.1.	Indirect Effect of Perceived Organisational Support	224
6.9.2.	Indirect Effect of Perceived External Reputation	224
6.10.	Summary and Conclusion	225
CHAPTER SEVEN	CONCLUSION.....	226
7.1.	Research Questions and Answers	226
7.2.	The Mixed Methods Research Question.....	228
7.3.	Proposed Conceptual Model	230
7.3.1.	The “Core” of the Conceptual Model	231
7.3.2.	Proposed Influencing Factors	232
7.3.2.1.	Influences on Commitment and Perceived Organisational Support	233
7.3.2.2.	Other Factors that may affect Affective Commitment	233
7.3.2.3.	Other Factors that may affect Perceived Organisational Support.....	233
7.3.2.4.	Influences on Organisational Identification.....	234
7.3.3.	Proposed Moderation Effect of Career Stage	234
7.4.	Contribution to Knowledge.....	235
7.4.1.	Contribution to Theory	235
7.4.2.	Methodological Contribution.....	237
7.4.3.	Practical Implications and Recommendations	237

7.5.	Limitations and Future Research	239
7.6.	Concluding Remarks.....	242
REFERENCES	243	
APPENDICES	268	

List of Tables

Table 1	Headcount of Academic Staff Members by Employment Status	42
Table 2	Academic Staff by Race and Qualification.....	43
Table 3	Headcount of Academic Staff Members by Gender	43
Table 4	Academic of Staff Members by Academic Rank and Gender.....	44
Table 5	Headcount of Academic Staff Members by Age Grouping.....	45
Table 6	Different Terms describing Perceptions of External Reputation.....	83
Table 7	Characteristics of the Sample (n=205)	105
Table 8	Model-Fit Criteria	121
Table 9	Affective Commitment Descriptive Statistics - by Item.....	150
Table 10	Organisational Identification Descriptive Statistics - by Item.....	150
Table 11	Perceived Organisational Support Descriptive Statistics - by Item.....	151
Table 12	Perceived External Reputation Descriptive Statistics - by Item.....	152
Table 13	Constructs - Descriptive Statistics (Overall)	152
Table 14	Bivariate Correlation Matrix.....	153
Table 15	Model Fit Indices: Affective Commitment.....	154
Table 16	Affective Commitment Items and Standardised Factor Loadings.....	155
Table 17	Model Fit Indices: Organisational Identification.....	156
Table 18	Organisational Identification Items and Standardised Factor Loadings	157
Table 19	Model Fit Indices: Perceived Organisational Support.....	158
Table 20	Perceived Organisational Support Items and Standardised Factor Loadings	159
Table 21	Model Fit Indices: Perceived External Support.....	160
Table 22	Perceived External Reputation Items and Standardised Factor Loadings	161
Table 23	Model Fit Indices: Structural Model.....	162
Table 24	Structural Model Results – Direct Effects	163
Table 25	Indirect Effects.....	164
Table 26	Variance Explained - R^2	165
Table 27	Content Analysis for External Reputation	166
Table 28	Differentiation between Proximal Units and the Institution.....	168
Table 29	Criticism of the Executive	168
Table 30	Lack of Organisational Support.....	169
Table 31	Transformation-related Issues.....	169
Table 32	Working Environment: Other	170

Table 33 Overview of Qualitative Findings – Key Themes	171
Table 34 AC Descriptors	173
Table 35 AC Enablers.....	174
Table 36 AC Blockers.....	176
Table 37 OID Enablers	179
Table 38 Blockers to Organisational Identification	180
Table 39 Reactions to Outsider Criticism.....	183
Table 40 Satisfied / Not Dissatisfied	186
Table 41 POS – Dissatisfied	188
Table 42 Comparison of Reputation Dimensions.....	191
Table 43 Salience of PER	192
Table 44 Impact of Student Protests	194
Table 45 Joint Display Table: Affective Commitment.....	196
Table 46 Joint Display Table: Organisational Identification.....	197
Table 47 Joint Display Table: Organisational Identification Item_1.....	198
Table 48 Joint Display Table: Perceived Organisational Support.....	199
Table 49 Joint Display Table: Perceived Organisational Support Item_2 and Item_3.....	200
Table 50 Joint Display Table: Perceived External Reputation	201
Table 51 Joint Display Table: Perceived External Reputation Item_1 and Item_5.....	202

List of Figures

Figure 1 Conceptual Model of the Linkages between the Constructs	8
Figure 2 Conceptual Model of the Linkages between the Constructs	53
Figure 3 Organisational Identification and Affective Commitment	67
Figure 4 Perceived Organisational Support and Affective Commitment	74
Figure 5 Perceived Organisational Support & Organisational Identification	76
Figure 6 Perceived External Reputation and Affective Commitment	86
Figure 7 Perceived External Reputation and Organisational Identification	88
Figure 8 Conceptual Model Specifying Hypothesised Structural Relationships.....	91
Figure 9 Steps in the Explanatory Sequential Mixed Methods Design	100
Figure 10 Visual Model: Explanatory Sequential Mixed Methods Design	103
Figure 11 Affective Commitment Measurement Model Path Diagram.....	122
Figure 12 Structural Model Path Diagram.....	125
Figure 13 Affective Commitment Path Diagram.....	155
Figure 14 Organisational Identification Path Diagram.....	157
Figure 15 Perceived Organisational Support Path Diagram	159
Figure 16 Perceived External Reputation Path Diagram	161
Figure 17 Structural Model Path Diagram.....	163
Figure 18 Proposed Conceptual Model.....	230

List of Appendices

appendix A	Research Site: Academic Staff Composition	268
Appendix B	Higher Education Governance	269
Appendix C	Student Body: Key Statistics.....	271
Appendix D	Print Media Article Re Student Protests	272
Appendix E	Organisational Commitment Literature	273
Appendix F	Representativeness Of The Survey Sample	274
Appendix G	Construct Scale Items.....	275
Appendix H	Survey Invitation Email: Covering Letter.....	276
Appendix I	Reminder Covering Letter	277
Appendix J	Histograms, Normal Q-Q Plots And Box Plots	278
Appendix K	Profile Of Interviewees	284
Appendix L	Interview Protocol.....	285
Appendix M	Reputation Dimensions – Laminated Handout	288
Appendix N	Invitation To Be Prospective Interviewees	289
Appendix O	Informed Consent Form	290
Appendix P	Preliminary Coding From Interview Protocol	291
Appendix Q	Ethical Clearance Approval Letter.....	292
Appendix R	Consolidated Joint Display Table	293

List of Abbreviations

AC	Affective Commitment
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CHE	Council on Higher Education
DHET	Department of Higher Education and Training
FMF	#FeesMustFall
FTE	Full-time Equivalent
GEM	Group Engagement Model
HEMIS	Higher Education Management Information System
HESA	Higher Education of South Africa
HRM	Human Resource Management
MMRQ	Mixed Methods Research Question
OC	Organisational Commitment
OCB	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour
OID	Organisational Identification
OST	Organisational Support Theory
PEP	Perceived External Prestige
PER	Perceived External Reputation
POS	Perceived Organisational Support
SCT	Self-Categorisation Theory
SET	Social Exchange Theory
SEM	Structural Equation Modelling
SIA	Social Identity Approach
SIT	Social Identity Theory
TA	Template Analysis
TCM	Three-component Model

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

“No university can achieve success without well-qualified, committed academic staff.”¹

1.1. Purpose of the Study

South African higher education institutions are expected to make a critical contribution toward the promotion of economic and social development, the achievement of social equity (Pienaar & Bester, 2006), and to “produce the people who collectively act as catalysts for social change” (Webbstock, 2016, p. 5). The quality of higher education depends to a large degree on the commitment and performance of academics, and therefore academics are critical to a university’s contribution to society (Altbach, Reisberg, & Rumbley, 2009; Capelleras, 2005; Lew, 2009; Umbach & Wawrzynski, 2005). However, because of radical changes in higher education, the commitment of academics to the institutions for which they work, is wavering (Pienaar & Bester, 2006; Smeenk, Eisinga, Teelken, & Doorewaard, 2006; Teelken, 2012). Bolden, Gosling, and O’Brien (2014) described the dissonance, ambivalence, disconnect and disengagement that contemporary academics feel towards their institutions. The increasing impact of managerialism in higher education has led to stronger links between management and government, and consequently weaker bonds and identification between academics and their institutions (Degn, 2018).

This study focuses firstly on academics in relation to their institutions. “Affective commitment” (AC) is a fundamental psychological relationship that binds employees to their organisations, or academics to their institutions. It is this relationship as well as that of “organisational identification” (OID) — the degree to which academics incorporate their employing institution into their self-identity — that are at the core of this investigation. If improved, both these constructs are likely to increase the retention of academics (Lew, 2009, Mensele & Coetzee, 2014, Riketta, 2005) and have other profoundly beneficial consequences for academics, their institutions, and ultimately their students, such as knowledge-sharing

¹ Altbach, P. G., Reisberg, L., & Rumbley, L. E. (2009). *Trends in global higher education: Tracking an academic revolution*. A report prepared for the UNESCO 2009 World Conference on Higher Education, p. 89.

(Goh and Sandhu, 2013), extra-role behaviours (Christ, Van Dick, Wagner, & Stellmacher, 2003), job satisfaction (Seyal & Afzaal, 2013) and job performance (Haryono & Arafat, 2017).

Secondly, this study investigated two specially selected institutional factors likely to influence AC and OID: namely, “perceived organisational support” (POS); and “perceived external reputation” (PER). POS — representing academics’ perceptions of the institutional support they receive — is thought to represent an informal status within the institution, while PER — representing academics’ perceptions of outsiders’ views of their university — represents an externally-derived status. Through quantitatively testing these two status-related perceptions concurrently, the study allowed for a comparison of how they influence the commitment and identification bonds that South African higher education academics might form with their institutions. Delving deeper using qualitative methods, the study explored academics’ interpretation of and meanings attributed to institutional commitment, identification, support and external reputation.

In sum, the purpose of this mixed methods study can be summarised as being: to investigate academics’ commitment to, and identification with, their institution with a view to understanding how academics’ perceptions of institutional support and of outsiders’ views of the university concurrently affect their organisational commitment and identification.

1.2. Research Context: The Higher Education Sector

This section discusses the context in which the study takes place, namely that of the higher education sector. It first presents the global trends in the sector, and then focuses specifically on the state of the South African sector. Thereafter, the research site is introduced, and the timing of the study is considered.

1.2.1. Global Trends in Higher Education

The global higher education sector has been beset with changes that have had a profound impact on the academic profession. Of these changes, arguably the most significant has been that of massification², a shift from universities providing elite education to providing mass

² Throughout the thesis, the term “massification” refers to enrolment rather than degree attainment.

education. On a positive note, this shift has resulted in diversity of the student body, offering increased access to those groups previously denied the opportunity of higher education, for example women, mature students and students from lower income backgrounds. However, massification has resulted in managerialism infiltrating the halls of academia, bringing with it a drive toward accountability, marketisation and privatisation (Adcroft & Taylor, 2013; Altbach, 2015; Altbach et al., 2009; Baron, 2000; Bundy, 2006; Harris, 2005).

Managerialism has forced academics, like corporate employees, to be accountable to performance management targets with measurable outputs (Winter, 2009). This has been accompanied by growing administrative and reporting requirements from government and management that academics generally dislike, increasing the academic workload (Parker, 2011; Tight, 2010). Marketisation has forced academics, who are already having to cope with increasing workload pressure, to become more self-motivated, entrepreneurial and adaptable (Morley, 2003). Furthermore, academic working conditions are deteriorating in several respects (Altbach et al., 2009; Winter, Taylor, & Sarros, 2000), and academic roles and identities (Harris, 2005) are being considerably re-shaped. Churchman (2006) noted the growing diversity of the academic role and the consequent impact on what used to be considered a singular academic identity. Demands on academics now include obligations to their disciplines, their need to create knowledge, their wish to teach well, as well as to take advantage of profitable local and global market-related prospects. It is also widely believed that academics have lost some autonomy as well as their influence on the management of the institution through shared governance (Altbach, 2015; Parker, 2011). State funding has become constrained worldwide (Parker, 2011; Webstock, 2016), yet with increased demands placed on academic institutions to provide a greater number of employable graduates (Altbach et al., 2009). As a result, student/staff ratios have worsened (Altbach, 2015). In addition, the balance between research and teaching has shifted, where greater emphasis is placed on research; the majority of academics now being expected to conduct research and bring in additional funding for this purpose (Billot, 2011; Harris, 2005). Authors have concurred that the effects of managerialism and reduced autonomy have impacted negatively on the trust, morale and commitment of academics in relation to their institutions (Dearlove, 2002; Winter et al., 2000). Citing Bocock and Watson, Smeenk et al. (2006) noted that “many academics have felt dispirited, undervalued, diminished in their autonomy and have suffered an increasing lack of empathy for the goals of institutions” (p. 2037).

1.2.2. The South African Higher Education Sector

In addition to these global challenges and concerns, South Africa has a multitude of unique higher education challenges, mostly because of the legacy of apartheid. Throughout this era, the white minority were privileged, and higher education government policies safeguarded their interests in terms of resource allocations, research funding, and student participation (Hall & Symes, 2005). Badat (2009) argued that South African higher education entailed marginalisation of specific groups, and inclusion of others, shaping the sector in a profound way. Due to this history, South Africa was relatively isolated from academic communities elsewhere in the world until becoming a democracy in 1994, and therefore followed the global trends in higher education approximately a decade later than most other countries (Bundy, 2006). The South African higher education system has undergone momentous transformation since 1994. The public higher education sector doubled in size, as access increased between 1995 and 2016 (Council on Higher Education [CHE], 2018; Universities South Africa, 2015). Higher education became one coordinated system, whereas previously it comprised several diverse and racially fragmented institutions (Universities South Africa, 2015; Webbstock, 2016). However, given that this system evolved from the apartheid legacy of separate higher education institutions for blacks³ and whites, it is not surprising that inequity remains today, mostly in the form of differences between funding allocations, staff qualifications and infrastructure at different institutions (Koen, 2003). Post-apartheid governance of the higher education sector has been exercised through various steering mechanisms where it was intended that individual universities were to remain mostly autonomous, managing their own resources but being accountable to government (Ballim, Scott, Simpson, & Webbstock, 2016; Lange & Luescher-Mamashela, 2016; Webbstock, 2016). However, government control and intervention has progressed since then, in shape, form and extent (Hall & Symes, 2005). In addition, the increasing the size of management levels of universities has had the unintended consequence of creating a bigger schism between the academics and leadership of their institutions (Lange & Luescher-Mamashela, 2016). This threatens to erode the psychological relationships between academics and their universities, potentially reducing their identification with, and commitment to their institutions.

University funding is a source of major concern in the South African higher education sector, as it is worldwide. Government subsidies have not kept pace with the student enrolment

³ The Employment Equity Act No. 55 of 1998 defines “black people” as “a generic term which means Africans, Coloureds, and Indians” (p. 6).

growth rate, tuition fees have risen and third stream income⁴ has dropped (Simkins, Scott, Stumpf, & Webbstock, 2016), placing expectations on academics to find ways to generate additional third stream income (Webbstock & Sehoole, 2016). Additionally, the underfunding of academic staff has led to a problematic student to staff ratio that has deteriorated over the past two decades. Related to this there has been a tendency to employ temporary or contract staff that tend to be less committed to academia, to help with teaching tasks (Webbstock & Sehoole, 2016). By 2016 the percentage of temporary staff had reached 65% of the overall academic staff complement (CHE 2018). The ageing of academic staff is also a concern in South Africa (Higher Education of South Africa [HESA], 2011; Mensele & Coetzee, 2014), as it is elsewhere in the world (Altbach et al., 2009). In 2016, 30% of the total South African academic workforce was aged 50 years or more, meaning that they will retire within the next 10–15 years⁵. It is improbable that there will be a sufficient number of academics to make up for the academics that are likely to retire in the next few years (Webbstock & Sehoole, 2016). South African institutions may also struggle to attract and retain academics because of poor salaries, large student numbers, intense workload pressure as well as issues around institutional culture (HESA 2011). Whether resultant vacancies can be filled remains to be seen since the PhD pipeline is constrained (Webbstock & Sehoole, 2016) and the profession may not attract young PhD graduates to stay in academia (Altbach et al., 2009).

Aligned to global trends, South African academics are being dealt with as employees, gradually losing their autonomy through managerialism, accountability and more government control (Webbstock & Sehoole, 2016). Pienaar and Bester (2006) pointed out that the changes and conditions in higher education “do not only affect the image and status of an academic career, but also contribute to problems such as increased job dissatisfaction and work stress and a decline in commitment to the organisation” (p. 581). Webster and Mosoetsa (2002) concluded their South African study on a disturbing note regarding academic staff retention:

Faced by these demands many have become deeply pessimistic about their future in the academic workplace. Some are attempting to exit, either by leaving the university for the private or public sector, or by moving into managerial jobs in the university or full-time research posts (p. 19).

⁴ Third stream income refers to income from sources other than government funding or student fees.

⁵ The retirement age of academics in South Africa is from 60-65 years old.

Furthermore, academics are mobile and easily able to find employment in other countries and other sectors (Altbach et al., 2009). This poses a huge threat to South African universities. The success of the academic's research profile and reputation can influence their institution's ability to recruit research funding, high calibre students and consulting opportunities (Rowley, as cited in Lew, 2009). Losing too many high-level staff would therefore have a severe impact on the sustainability of an institution. However, where staff develop high levels of affective commitment and organisational identification with their institution, they are less likely to want to leave.

1.3. Theoretical Background and Conceptual Framework

Numerous studies, across many disciplinary and inter-disciplinary areas (e.g. organisational psychology, social psychology, organisational behaviour) provide evidence of the importance of research on affective commitment (AC) and organisational identification (OID). These studies have been conducted for more than five decades and continue to be undertaken today. In this study's context, AC (Meyer & Allen, 1991) refers to academics' emotional bonds with, and involvement in, the institution, leading to outcomes that contribute meaningfully to the university's success. Somewhat closely related to AC, OID (Ashforth & Mael, 1989) describes the degree to which academics integrate the university into their self-identities. AC and OID both entail an employee's psychological attachment to the institution. However, in the case of AC, the academic and university retain separate identities, whereas in the case of OID, there is an overlapping of identities, and the organisation forms part of the individual's self-concept (Van Dick, 2016).

Traditionally, workplace antecedents have been theorised to influence AC through the mechanism of social exchange theory (SET) and to influence OID through the social identity approach (SIA). SET postulates that a social exchange relationship develops between an employee and the organisation (Blau, 1964) based on Gouldner's (1960) norm of reciprocity. This would entail an exchange of work performance and loyalty for pay, recognition, support, and so forth (Van Knippenberg, Van Dick, & Tavares, 2007). Hence, academics would demonstrate AC in return for socio-emotional and economic rewards offered by the institution. Desired workplace outcomes such as lower turnover intention, and improved work performance, attendance, job satisfaction, motivation, and organisational citizenship behaviour have all been strongly linked to AC (Becker et al., 2009; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer & Maltin, 2010; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). On the other

hand, OID has been posited to occur through the SIA, comprising social identity theory (SIT, Tajfel, 1978; Tajfel & Turner, 1979), and the self-categorisation theory (SCT, Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, & Wetherell, 1987). Applied to academia, SIA posits that identification with an institution would provide academics with a social identity, and thereby potentially enhancing their self-esteem through association with the institution. An important implication of employees' self-concepts being intertwined with that of their institution, is that employees are more likely to ensure the institution's best interest and perform their work accordingly (Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994; Van Knippenberg & Van Schie, 2000). OID has been found in previous studies to be negatively related to turnover intention, and positively related to organisational commitment, job satisfaction, and extra- and in-role performance, among others (Ashforth, Harrison, & Corley, 2008; Lee, Park, & Koo, 2015; Riketta, 2005; Van Dick, 2016; Van Knippenberg & Sleebos, 2006).

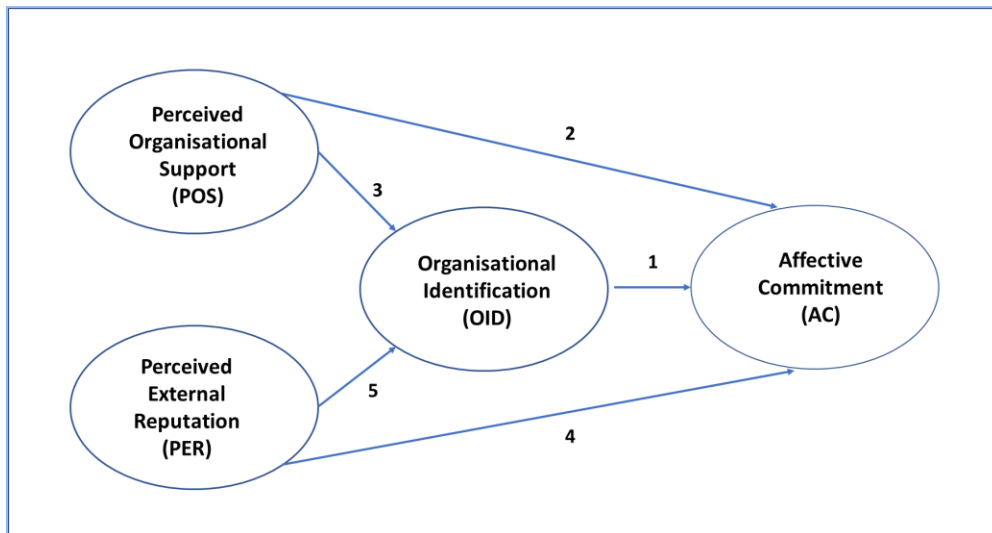
More recently, however, several authors have suggested that through the integration and/or complementary use of SET and SIA to explain how certain antecedents affect AC and OID, researchers can gain more insight into the psychological relationship between employees and the organisation (Edwards, 2009; Fuller, Hester, Barnett, Frey, Relyea, & Beu., 2006a; Stinglhamber, Caesens, Desmette, Hansez, Hanin, & Bertrand, 2015; Vandenberghe, Bentein, & Stinglhamber, 2004). Perceived organisational support (POS) and perceived external reputation (PER)⁶ are two specific concepts, both found to be related to AC (Edwards & Peccei, 2010; Guerrero & Herrbach, 2009) and to OID (Alniacik, Cigerim, Akcin, & Bayram, 2011; Fuller et al., 2006a). POS in this study represents academics' perceptions of how valued they are by the institution, whereas PER represents academics' perceptions of what outsiders think of their employing institution. These antecedents can be conceptualised as different forms of status, where POS represents an "informal status" (Caesens, Marique, & Stinglhamber, 2014), or similarly "internal respect" (Fuller et al., 2006a), bestowed upon the academic from within the institution, whereas PER can be considered "external status" conferred onto the academic indirectly through the institution (Edwards, 2009; Fuller et al., 2006a). The group engagement model (GEM, Tyler & Blader, 2003) builds on SIT and proposes that OID is developed through both these types of status. To the extent that academics believe they are being treated fairly, they will feel respected and valued (internal respect/informal status), leading to identification with the institution. Similarly, to the extent

⁶ This construct is being referred to interchangeably with Perceived External Prestige (PEP), a similar, albeit not identical, concept. These two concepts are assumed to relate to the study's other constructs in a comparable manner and are discussed further in Chapter 3.

that academics perceive outsiders' perceptions of the institution as positive (i.e. the prestige or external status of the organisation) there will be a beneficial effect on the individual's self-esteem, and thus OID will be encouraged (Edwards, 2009; Fuller et al., 2006a). Since academics have been argued to be sensitive to status (Blackmore & Kandiko, 2011), and given the potential of POS and PER to influence both academics' AC and OID, these variables were selected to be investigated concurrently in this study.

The study developed and tested a conceptual model involving the four constructs, AC, OID, POS and PER. The discussion of how this model was developed from extant literature can be found in Chapter Three. Figure 1 shows the final model that was tested, and it is briefly described below the diagram.

Figure 1 Conceptual Model of the Linkages between the Constructs



The conceptual model firstly proposes a relationship between academics' OID and AC — refer to “1” on the diagram. Direct relationships are then theorised between POS and AC (“2”), and between POS and OID (“3”), respectively. Similarly, direct relationships between PER and AC (“4”), and between PER and OID (“5”), are proposed. Furthermore, indirect relationships between academics' POS and AC; and finally, between PER, and AC, are proposed to be partially mediated by OID. All these relationships are hypothesised to exist simultaneously.

1.4. Research Framework

1.4.1. Research Questions

The overarching research question addressed by the study was as follows:

How do academics' perceptions of institutional support, and of how outsiders' view their university, simultaneously influence their identification with, and commitment to, their university? This question was broken down into three sub-questions:

1. How does academics' identification with their institutions affect their organisational commitment?
2. How do academics' perceptions of institutional support affect their identification with, and commitment to, their institution?
3. How do academics' perceptions of outsiders' views of their university affect their identification with, and commitment to, their institution?

The next section discusses the research approach to answering these questions.

1.4.2. Research Approach

Traditionally studies of the antecedents and consequences of constructs such as AC and OID have been conducted through quantitative research methods. However, this study utilised a mixed methods approach. Individually, quantitative and qualitative methods have their own advantages: while the former is useful for generalising results from a sizeable sample to a larger population; the latter enables a depth of understanding, usually gleaned from fewer participants. Conversely, both methods have their limitations. With mixed methods, "the limitations of one method can be offset by the strengths of the other method, and the combination of quantitative and qualitative data provide a more complete understanding of the research problem than either approach by itself" (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011, p. 8).

Specifically, the study implemented an explanatory sequential research design. This design typically entails two separate phases of data collection and analyses, conducted consecutively: "Explanatory sequential" suggests that quantitative survey data is collected first and subsequently analysed. Thereafter, a qualitative phase is conducted, designed to follow up on the results of the quantitative phase with a view to explaining significant, insignificant and

any surprising results. In this study, the first phase, and the primary component of the study, was mostly quantitative and administered via an online survey. The survey included two open-ended questions, comprising an embedded qualitative component. The survey link was sent to all the permanent academics employed at the selected institution. A total of 205 usable survey responses were analysed using confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation modeling. The open-ended questions were analysed using content analysis. Following the first phase, a purposive subset of the respondents were selected for the second phase, which comprised qualitative research. In total, 15 interviews were conducted with a semi-structured interview protocol that was based on the quantitative results from the first phase. The interviews were analysed using template analysis, a specific form of the more general thematic analysis.

1.4.3. Research Site

This section provides details about the institution at which the study was conducted. Seamount University⁷, is a “historically white” and therefore, “historically advantaged”, institution. In terms of the current South African university system classification, it is a “traditional university” with a research intensive focus. According to Cooper’s (2015) analysis of the South African higher education landscape, it would be classified as one of five South African universities in what he termed the “upper band” of elite universities (with indicators of high research-intensivity). Over the past five years, the Quacquarelli Symonds (QS) international universities rankings placed this institution within the ranks of the top 200 universities, out of 959 universities. Seamount University fares particularly well in the area of academic reputation, indicating its strong research focus.

The university had 33,311 full-time equivalent (FTE) students in 2016⁸ (Seamount University, 2018). Twenty-six percent of the 2016 student enrolments were African students, while 13% were coloured⁹, 7% were Indian, 28% were white, and 26% undisclosed¹⁰. The total 2016 academic staff complement was 4971, while only 24% of these were permanent posts (CHE 2018). While Seamount University fares well in the QS rankings in terms of research, it performs poorly in terms of staff-to-student ratios. The ratio of FTE enrolled students to FT

⁷ To protect the confidentiality of the university at which the study’s fieldwork took place, this fictitious name will be used throughout the thesis to represent the institution.

⁸ The 2016 data were the most recent available data.

⁹ This term originated in the apartheid era under the Population Registration Act of 1950 to describe people of colour that were not classified as “black”.

¹⁰ These racial categories accord to the Employment Equity Act, No. 55 of 1998.

permanent academic staff was 1:33.1 in 2016 (Seamount University, 2018). While student throughput rates at the undergraduate level are higher than the South African averages, they are nonetheless a concern. In the 2012 cohort of first-time entering students of three-year degrees across all faculties, only 48% of the cohort completed in the minimum period of three years, while 83% had graduated at the end of five years. A total of 36% dropped out or were excluded on academic grounds (Seamount University, 2018).

In terms of transformation imperatives, the university still has a long way to go to redress racial equity issues regarding its academic staff complement. White academics still comprise the majority of academic staff, both permanent and temporary. In 2016, only 14% of permanent academic staff were African, compared to 63% being white (CHE 2018). Table A1 in Appendix A shows the percentages of academic staff in 2016 by employment status (i.e. permanent versus temporary) and race. In terms of gender, there is a 50:50 overall split of female to male, which is slightly better than the average of the country (49:51). However, women make up only 46% of the permanent staff, while men are still the majority (54%). More detail is disclosed in Table A2 (Appendix A).

The aging professoriate is a concern at this institution, as it is for the sector nationwide (and internationally). Thirty-six percent of professors, and 20% of associate professors, respectively, are 60 years old or more. This means that they will retire within the next five years (Seamount University, 2018). Furthermore, 83% of professors, and 56% of associate professors, respectively, are 50 years old or more, so they will probably retire within 15 years. This highlights the need for the university to urgently retain and develop their current younger academics, as well as to attract new graduates into academia. Table A3 in Appendix A shows the full breakdown of permanent academic staff by age group and academic status.

In conclusion, university management of this institution can justifiably be concerned about the commitment of its academic staff. The unacceptably low staff-to-student ratio, pressure to retain the university's international research rankings, the challenges of low student throughput, and so forth, result in huge demands on the academics. Thus promoting both identification with the institution and emotional commitment (OID and AC), is important for Seamount University to prevent attrition, increase job satisfaction, and improve job performance. Furthermore, in view of the ageing professoriate, knowledge transfer from senior to junior academics needs to take place in order to groom and develop the junior academics into more senior positions. Improving AC is likely to encourage knowledge

transfer from senior to junior academics academics (Goh & Sandhu, 2013). This study was therefore relevant to this institution, and similarly, Seamount University was an appropriate research site at which to conduct the study.

1.5. Significance of the Study

The insights from the higher education sector overview suggest that the academic profession faces serious challenges worldwide. South Africa's higher education sector is under threat of losing academic staff to retirement, as well as to the attrition of early-stage academics due to unacceptable staff-to-student ratios, workload pressure, reduced autonomy, and low salaries. One way in which a university can retain academic staff is through encouraging their AC. AC been found to be an important predictor of the turnover intention of Malaysian academics (Lew, 2009). Mensele and Coetzee (2014) found a similar result with South African academics' organisational commitment¹¹. The influence of AC on turnover intention is a relevant consideration in South Africa, where there is a critical shortage of skilled academics (Barkhuizen, Schutte, & Nagel, 2017). Recent studies showed that between 34% and 50% (Barkhuizen et al., 2017; Theron, Barkhuizen, & Du Plessis, 2014) of the surveyed academics were thinking of leaving their institutions. High turnover of higher education academic staff presents numerous challenges, such as the high cost of instruction of new staff, decline in research outputs and university productivity as well as potentially reduced quality of teaching (Barkhuizen et al., 2017). Thus, in terms of its influence on reducing turnover intention, there is a strong argument for promoting AC in academics. Other significant outcomes of academics' AC established in previous research are knowledge-sharing among academics (Goh & Sandhu, 2013), job satisfaction (Nyquist, Hitchcock, & Teherani, 2000; Seyal & Afzaal, 2013) and job performance (Haryono & Arafat, 2017). This is vital, since the quality of students' learning is largely determined by the performance of academics (Capelleras, 2005; Lew, 2009; Umbach & Wawrzynski, 2005). In South Africa, the quality of teaching and learning in higher education is expected to make a profound contribution "to the formation of a socially just society" (McKenna, 2016, p. 143) hence it is imperative that academics perform well. Improving AC would lead to better performance. However, despite the value of developing AC in academics, there is a paucity of studies that investigate AC antecedents in this context. A few exceptions are studies that have found job-related characteristics (Joiner &

¹¹ Although this finding involved normative commitment, there is generally a substantial overlap between normative and affective commitment (Johnson, Chang, & Yang, 2010; Meyer et al., 2002)

Bakalis, 2006), perceived organisational support (Fuller, Hester, Barnett, Frey, & Relyea, 2006b; Lew, 2009) and job-satisfaction (Abdullah & Bin Hamid, 2017), related to AC of academics. This suggests that there is a need for more research in this area.

Like AC, OID is also strongly associated with employees' intention to stay or leave, as well as other beneficial work outcomes such as job satisfaction, and extra-role and in-role performance (Ashforth et al., 2008; Lee et al., 2015; Riketta, 2005; Van Dick, 2016; Van Knippenberg & Sleebos, 2006). Extra- and in-role performance can be argued to be exceptionally important in the case of academics. Christ, Van Dick, Wagner and Stellmacher (2003) found that OID influenced German school teachers' extra-role behaviours. The authors emphasised the importance of extra-role behaviours in this profession and argued that it was critical that teachers were willing to provide additional resources, voluntarily, given that they do not receive many extrinsic rewards. A similar argument could be made in the case of academics. This might be especially true in South Africa, where many underprepared students require additional support and tutoring (Rothmann & Jordaan, 2006).

Given the current challenges in the higher education sector, it is surprising that there have been relatively few studies that investigate antecedents of academics' OID. Van Knippenberg and Sleebos (2006) theorised that analysis of SIT variables like OID, in addition to social exchange variables such as AC, would complement knowledge pertaining to the relationships between academics and their institutions. Their study at a Dutch university found a significant relationship between POS and OID, before controlling for AC. This study builds on the work of these researchers, and investigates the influence of POS on both OID and AC, concurrently, in the presence of PER. It is deemed important to understand the impact of POS on OID and AC in the academic context since it is potentially a variable that a university might have some control over. University management would see several important benefits of, for example, reduced turnover of academic staff (as discussed previously) if both OID and AC could be increased. Reducing turnover is especially relevant in South Africa due to increasing competition for research-active and senior academic staff, where the same academics circulate within the sector, rather than growing capacity (Webbstock, 2016).

While POS has been described as a form of internal respect (Fuller et al., 2006a), the relationship between academics and their employing institution is likely to be affected by external status too, in the form of PER. It is believed that institutional prestige is important to academics (Blackmore & Kandiko, 2011; O'Meara & Bloomgarden, 2010). Blackmore and

Kandiko (2011) developed a “model of academic motivation” and theorised that “the idea of a prestige economy seems potentially relevant to an academic context in which social and cultural capital is generated and exchanged, and where academic approbation can lead to both tangible and intangible rewards” (p. 404). Indeed, Alniacik et al. (2011) found evidence that Perceived Corporate Reputation¹² was positively correlated to the AC academic staff in Turkey, while having a significant negative correlation with turnover. A few studies have therefore considered the relationship between PER-type constructs and AC in the academic context. However, the opportunity existed to compare its impact on both academics’ OID and AC, simultaneously, and in conjunction with POS. Becoming aware of the role PER might play in promoting AC and OID of their academics, might help university management to ascertain the relevance of, or need for, reputation management internally, especially as far as academic staff are concerned.

Determining whether OID is a partial mediator in the relationships between academics’ AC and the two independent variables, POS and PER, respectively, would provide an indication of the importance of promoting OID in academics. Moreover, the concurrent testing of the influences of POS or PER might suggest which of these two constructs has more influence on either or both dependent variables, and therefore which should be given more attention by university management.

Finally, it is believed that universities “serve as storehouses of knowledge for nurturing the manpower needs of the nation and hence, for satisfying the aspirations of the people for a good, and humane society” (Samuel & Chipunza, 2013, p. 97). Therefore, research that promote a better understanding of how to curb attrition, and retain loyalty, motivation and work performance of academics, can play a role in shaping the future, not only of the academic profession, but rather of society at large.

1.6. Contributions of the Research

1.6.1. Academic Contributions

As alluded to in the previous section, there is a paucity of studies, globally and in South Africa, that have investigated the interrelationships of these four constructs, AC, OID, POS

¹² Aside from PEP and PER, there are several other constructs that describe insiders’ perceptions of outsiders’ views, for example, Perceived Corporate Reputation, Construed External Image, and so forth. Previous results involving any of these constructs are treated as interchangeable in terms of the study’s objectives.

and PER, in the context of higher education. Thus, the study aimed to contribute to the extant literature on employee behaviour and organisational psychology, in a few ways:

Firstly, through developing and testing an extended conceptual model, the study sought to add to the body of knowledge pertaining to the four constructs and their interrelationships. In this instance, the study contributes to the literature on OID and AC, as well as on POS and PER. Drawing on recent theory that has considered how social exchange theory, social identity theory and the group engagement model complement each other in explaining the relationships between AC, OID, and their antecedents, a conceptual model was developed. The model proposed that OID positively influences AC, and that the two independent variables, POS and PER, positively influence both OID and AC directly. Furthermore, the model theorised that OID plays a partial mediation role between POS and PER, respectively, and AC. While some of these interrelationships have been tested independently, only one other study (Marique, Stinglhamber, Desmette, Caesens, & De Zanet, 2013) was found that tested all of these concurrently (albeit in a somewhat different manner). The model proposed in this study, further allows for a comparison between the direct effects of POS versus PER on OID and AC, as well as indirectly on AC partially mediated by OID.

A second contribution relates to the research context: The study investigates interrelationships between the four constructs in the higher education sector. While these constructs have received attention in management literature, most studies have focused on employees working in the private sector. This study, however, is firmly rooted in academia. It thus contributes to knowledge of the higher education sector, in terms of developing a greater understanding of the bond between academics and their institutions. Although many studies in higher education have alluded to the deterioration of this bond due to managerialism and other changes in the context of higher education (Altbach et al., 2009; Bolden et al., 2014; Winter, 2009; Winter et al., 2000), few have explored a conceptual model of this kind to gain knowledge regarding certain institutional factors that may impact on it.

A third objective was to establish the relevance of the PER construct — as measured in this study — in the higher education context. The PER construct, founded on the notion of “corporate reputation”, uses items based on Fortune’s “America’s Most Admired Companies (AMAC) Index”. In the context of the private sector, it measures employees’ perceptions of how outsiders view their company, based on a group of specific business indicators and representing a variety of stakeholders’ views about the firm. It is therefore a holistic approach

to perceptions of outsiders' evaluations (Helm, 2013). Although PER has previously only been tested in the private sector, universities are arguably becoming more "corporate" in nature (Parker, 2011), and PER was therefore deemed an appropriate proxy for measuring external status in this context. Typically, an alternative construct, usually referred to as Perceived External Prestige (PEP), had been used in similar studies to measure insiders' perceptions of external status. PEP is relatively one-dimensional, while PER — as operationalised in this study — is a "multidimensional"¹³ reputation-related construct that provides a more nuanced view of perceived external status. PER considers outsiders' views on various aspects of the institution, for example, its innovativeness. Herrbach, Mignonac, and Gatignon (2004) argued that it would be "interesting to probe further into the concept of prestige [PEP] by looking into its multiple facets" (p. 1402). To a limited extent, through using the PER to measure external status, the study headed in this direction.

Finally, a contribution is made related to the emerging market context. There is a dearth of studies that have tested conceptual models of the nature of the one tested in this study, in emerging economies such as South Africa. Most of the previous studies involving any combination of two or more of the four constructs included in this study's conceptual model, were conducted in developed countries. Therefore, the findings of this study extend the extant literature by offering an emerging market comparison.

1.6.2. Empirical and Practical Contributions

A recent analysis of premier publications in the organisational identification literature found that 73% of journal articles were quantitative in nature (Miscenko & Day, 2016). In Miscenko and Day's (2016) analysis, only 3% of the studies used a mixed methods approach, incorporating both quantitative and qualitative research. This study utilised a mixed methods approach to address the research questions, therein making an empirical contribution to studies on OID, as well as to the other constructs that were investigated. Mixed methods were used to gain a more holistic explanation of the interrelationships between the variables that were being tested in the developed conceptual model. Conducting mixed methods research allowed for contextualising how the constructs manifested in the academic context. Through "hearing the voice" of the academic via the qualitative component of the study, the

¹³ Throughout the thesis, where the term "multidimensional" is used to describe the PER construct, it needs to be interpreted with caution: In these instances, it does not suggest (as it typically might) that the individual construct items will load onto several factors and that the different dimensions best represent the construct. Instead it merely represents the five (single item) dimensions of PER as operationalised in this study.

researcher's interpretations of the results were enriched, and the findings are likely to be more informative and useful to the reader.

In terms of contributing to management practice, the study aimed to provide guidance to university administrators, particularly managers of academics, regarding the development of their academics' commitment to, and identification with, the institution. The findings resulted in the development of a proposed conceptual model, which presented factors likely to influence academics' institutional commitment and identification. The study also made several recommendations based on this model. The importance of having a more committed and identified academic workforce was discussed previously, and hence university administrators might find these recommendations useful.

1.7. Overview of Thesis

The thesis comprises seven chapters. The contents of each chapter will be described in turn.

1.7.1. Chapter One: Introduction

This chapter begins by introducing the purpose of the study, followed by an overview of the context, highlighting changes in the global higher education sector, and pertinent issues in the South African higher education sector. The relevant theory regarding the four variables of interest in this study — AC, OID, POS, and PER — and the conceptual framework for the study are presented next. The research questions and the approach to answering them are articulated, and details about the research site are provided. The chapter proceeds to argue the relevance of the study in the context of academia, and hence the significance of the study. Finally, the chapter summarises the study's research contributions and presents an overview of the thesis.

1.7.2. Chapter Two: Academics in Context

This chapter provides context for the study. It begins by discussing the higher education context globally, expanding on the changes that have taken place in the sector over the past few decades, and the impact that these changes have had on the academic profession, and therefore on academics. Having discussed the shifting roles, identities and morale of the academic globally, the chapter goes on to provide details about the higher education sector in South Africa, specifically. A brief overview of the country's socio-political history is

provided at the outset of this section, since the state of its higher education sector today is a product of this unfortunate history.

1.7.3. Chapter Three: Conceptual Framework

This chapter presents the literature that informed the conceptual framework of the study, and the development of the hypotheses. It discusses the literature pertaining to the four constructs, AC, OID, POS and PER, as well as theory related to their interrelationships. It explains how social exchange theory, the social identity approach, organisational support theory and the group engagement model underpin the study's conceptual model. Moreover, it provides relevant empirical evidence based on previous studies to support the development of each of the hypotheses.

1.7.4. Chapter Four: Research Methodology

This chapter begins with an overview of the philosophical stance taken in this study, that of pragmatism. It then proceeds to discuss the explanatory sequential mixed methods research design, including its various phases and steps, that was used to conduct the study. The data collection for the quantitative phase, which entailed an online survey, is discussed next, followed by details of how the quantitative analysis, that made use of structural equation modelling, was carried out. The chapter also discusses content analysis that was used for the small embedded qualitative portion of the online survey. Next, the chapter discusses the interim or “connection” phase of the mixed methods study, detailing how the results from the quantitative study informed the follow-up qualitative phase. Thereafter, the qualitative data collection, comprising semi-structured interviews, is discussed, followed by details of how template analysis was used to analyse the qualitative data. The process for the integration of results is discussed next. Subsequently the theoretical assumptions that were implicit in the study are acknowledged, and the chapter concludes with ethical considerations related to the study.

1.7.5. Chapter Five: Results and Analysis

This chapter presents the quantitative and qualitative findings from Phases One and Two. The quantitative results comprise descriptive statistics for the four constructs, AC, OID, POS and PER, followed by the results of the confirmatory factor analyses for each. Thereafter the structural equation model results are discussed. The results of the embedded qualitative portion of Phase One (i.e. the open-ended survey questions) are provided in the form of

themes that emerged from content analysis. The qualitative results are then provided by means of templates that show the key themes for each construct. Finally, the integrated findings from the quantitative and qualitative results from both phases of the study are presented in joint display tables and discussed.

1.7.6. Chapter Six: Discussion

This chapter discusses the researcher's interpretation of the findings from both Phases One and Two. It begins with the contextualisation of the two dependent constructs, AC and OID, and then discusses the relationship between these two variables. It goes on to discuss how POS manifests in the context of academia, and then discusses the relationship between it and AC, and OID, respectively. Finally, PER is contextualised, and again, its influences on the dependent variables are discussed. Relevant findings from previous studies are used to augment the discussion.

1.7.7. Chapter Seven: Conclusion

This chapter concludes the thesis by answering the research questions posed in the study, including the mixed methods research question. A conceptual model is proposed, based on the findings of the study and the researcher's interpretation thereof. The model shows the factors that influence each of the constructs respectively, as well as possible mediation and moderation effects. After the model is discussed, the chapter highlights the study's various contributions. Thereafter, the limitations of the study and recommendations for future research are presented.

This discussion of the layout concludes the first chapter. The next chapter presents a detailed overview of the higher education sector, to place the study's academics in context.

CHAPTER TWO

ACADEMICS IN CONTEXT

2.1. Introduction

Significant changes in the higher education sector have impacted on the work life of the academic both globally, and in South Africa. “There is a powerful discourse of crisis, loss, damage, contamination, and decay” (Morley, 2003, p. 5). The impact of globalisation, massification of higher education, the rise of managerialism with its drive toward efficiency and accountability, marketisation and privatisation, have altered the academic environment and working conditions and what is expected from academics the world over. Consequently, academic roles and identities are being drastically reshaped. This chapter provides the context for the study and is presented in two parts. The first part begins with an overview of the shifts in the global higher education sector, thereafter discussing how these changes have affected academics in terms of their roles, identities and morale. The second part provides a historical background to the South African higher education sector, then discusses the sector in terms of its size and structure, its governance, the student body, how it is funded, and finally reviews the academic profession and the key challenges that it faces in the South African context specifically.

2.2. The Higher Education Sector: Global Trends

2.2.1. Overview

Higher education is a sector in transition. “An academic revolution has taken place in higher education in the past half century marked by transformations unprecedented in scope and diversity” were the words used by Altbach et.al (2009, p. iii) in a UNESCO report on the global trends in higher education. Coinciding with globalisation and the rapid growth of information technologies (Bundy, 2006), the higher education sector worldwide has been subjected to dramatic forces of change that have significantly shifted the circumstances of academic work. Firstly, and arguably most importantly, there has been a shift from universities providing elite education to providing mass education, referred to as massification (Adcroft & Taylor, 2013; Altbach, 2015; Altbach et al., 2009; Baron, 2000; Bundy, 2006;

Harris, 2005). Secondly, managerialism, together with a drive toward accountability, has permeated higher education and brought about unprecedented changes in the way universities operate (Altbach, 2003; Churchman, 2002; Marginson, 2000; Smeenk et al., 2006). Thirdly, the influence of neoliberalism, marketisation and privatisation, on higher education, has resulted in new demands being created from stakeholders outside the universities (Altbach, 2003; Bundy, 2006; Harris, 2005; Smeenk et al., 2006; Winter, 2009). At the same time, a worldwide trend has seen government expenditure on higher education being diminished, whilst government still exercises control through its funding of grants and subsidies, as well as via its reporting requirements and accountability guidelines (Parker, 2011). While this review cannot exhaustively cover the multitude of trends and complexities that have arisen in the global higher education sector in the past few decades, it will highlight the key areas that have influenced the academic profession and that have thus impacted on the roles, identities and morale of the academic, both globally and in the South African context.

2.2.2. Massification

Extant literature on the changing higher education landscape suggests that massification — the shift from elite higher education provision to that of mass provision — is arguably the most important underpinning force that has shaped its transformation from the latter half of the nineteenth century. Fueling this, is the belief that a highly educated population is at the core of economic growth and a robust civil society (Webbstock, 2016). Evidence from analysis of data from 1960 through 2000, covering 103 countries, suggested that higher education can meaningfully increase household incomes and the rate of economic growth (Bloom, David, & Kevin, 2006). Altbach (2015) stated that “the ‘logic’ of massification has affected all countries, resulting in increased access to higher education, greater importance of academic credentials for employment and social mobility, and the centrality of higher education in increasingly knowledge-based economies (p. 4). Indeed, massification has led to “an expanded academic profession and an academic community that is increasingly unrecognizable” (Altbach, 2003, p. 2). The UK is an example of a nation that saw rapid massification of the higher education sector: whereas 4.1% of eligible¹⁴ British youth were enrolled at university in 1961, the participation rate had reached 45% by 2006 (Bundy, 2006). Nixon (1996) argued that the challenges facing higher education need to be understood in terms of this exponential increase in student enrolment numbers. Two of the critical implications of the expansion in student numbers highlighted by this author were as follows:

¹⁴ “Eligible” refers to youth in the relevant age group to qualify for university enrolment.

in the first instance, the composition of the student body was less homogenous than before, comprising more woman, mature students, and part-timers, and albeit to a much lesser extent, minority ethnic groups and students from less affluent families. Secondly, because of this, more flexibility was required by higher education institutions in terms of providing accessible curricula and assessment practices that would be relevant to the needs of the more diverse student body. To this end, self-regulated learning became increasingly emphasised, facilitated by a greater variety of learning channels such as distance learning, resource-based learning, educational technology and computer-aided learning, and so forth.

Although the increased diversity and size of the student body is both desirable and necessary, massification poses a considerable financial challenge the world over. Serving the needs of a bigger and more varied student body is the underlying issue. Governments rarely have the financial means to fully support the whole higher education system (Altbach, 2015). As well as placing a strain on university funding (Dearlove, 2002), massification has led to a change in staffing structures, where a greater number of part-time or contract staff need to be employed (Altbach, 2015), in addition to changes in student/staff ratios. In view of diminishing public funding, massification has resulted in the need for universities to become more efficient. This drive for efficiency in turn, has led to concerns about “standards” and has seen an increased involvement from the State, reducing the institutional autonomy of universities (Dearlove, 2002). Thus, the higher education sector has experienced the rapid development of a culture of managerialism and accountability. The next section provides an overview of this phenomenon.

2.2.3. Managerialism and Accountability

In most developed countries, universities have been transformed by New Public Management (NPM), entailing market-based public administration, and managerialism (Parker, 2011). Managerialism, in the public sector context referred to as “new managerialism”, is founded on private sector management principles and involves dominant forms of executive control (Churchman, 2006; Marginson, 2000; Smeenk et al., 2006; Winter et al., 2000). Deem and Brehony (2005) described the characteristics of “new managerialism” as including the pre-eminence of management above all other activities; overseeing employee performance; the achievement of financial and other targets, auditing the quality of service delivery and the growth of quasi-markets for services. These authors asserted that new managerialism introduces private sector “ideas and practices” into the public sector, implicitly believing in

the superiority of the private sector ideals such as efficiency and effectiveness. Rather than discipline leaders representing their disciplinary academic community, as in the past, “deans are redefined as middle managers answerable to the senior executive” (Parker, 2011, pp. 443–444). Parker (2011) suggested that decision-making power within universities had largely “passed from formerly influential collegiate academic committees and academic units to university managers, thereby leading to predominantly centralised management driven research and teaching strategies” (p. 444). The author further argued that, aligned to private sector management principles, decision-making and leadership takes the form of a “top-down” approach that has been accompanied by increasing accountability requirements and government control. This form of university management has progressively undermined the collegial governance model, academics’ authority within the university governance structure, as well as their own autonomy. This will be discussed further in due course.

Importantly, managerialism introduced new types of internal and external accountability, including the use of performance management, performance indicators, target-setting, and benchmarking (Deem & Brehony, 2005). One definition of the meaning of accountability — in what is referred to as an audit society — is that of “being answerable to students, colleagues and government” for any funding received (Zepke, 2007, p. 302). Measures related to the provision of funding were implemented in various countries. Examples range from the Research Assessment Exercise (RAE) in the United Kingdom, to the Performance Based Research Fund (PBRF) in New Zealand, and to the Excellence in Research for Australia (ERA). Audits to assess the quality of teaching and learning came about through establishing bodies such as the UK’s Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education (Hemer, 2014). “Quality assessment has been seen as the antithesis to the chaos of global expansion of higher education” (Morley, 2003, p. 1). However, quality assurance practices have been argued to oppose the traditional way in which academic institutions were managed previously, that is through self-regulated collegial practices (Morley, 2003) as mentioned previously. Authors (Parker, 2011; Yelder & Codling, 2004) have referred to the “corporatisation” of higher education. Closely linked to this, and overlapping with the discussion on managerialism and accountability, is the other indirect outcome of massification, that of marketisation and privatisation.

2.2.4. Marketisation and Privatisation

Zepke (2007) discussed how the emergence of an audit society can be linked to neoliberalism and the marketisation of education. He argued that there has been a “reconceptualisation of the relationship” (p. 301) between government and its citizens, from one that is political to one that is economic. The author described the relationships as being “contractual” and being “between consumers and providers”. In terms of this, where government is a provider, educational institutions are consumers and where institutions are providers, their students are consumers (Zepke, 2007). Furthermore, due to lower levels of direct government funding, subsidies and grants, universities have been driven to find alternative sources of revenues and therefore have become more reliant on market-generated income streams (Parker, 2011). Universities, in addition to their regular research and teaching activities, have increasingly become involved in different types of entrepreneurial ventures, for example partnerships with corporates, to generate both income and research opportunities (Harris, 2005). To attract student fee income, higher education institutions have become “producers of commodities”, where students/consumers select institutions based on their preferences and the university’s brand image (Bundy, 2006). Reviewing the higher education changes that took place in New Zealand, for example, Roberts (2013) posited that tertiary education institutions were expected to perform like commercial ventures. Aligned with marketisation principles, these institutions compete, chase targets and employ aggressive advertising to attract “consumers” or “clients”. Similarly, Parker (2011) reflected that universities’ goals now mirror those of the private sector. They follow an ideology of maximising profit and brand equity in pursuit of growing revenues and profits.

Ellis, McNicholl, Blake, and McNally (2014) borrowed the lens of “academic capitalism”, defined as being “the pursuit of market and market-like activities” (Slaughter & Leslie, 1997, p. 17) to elucidate how the work of higher education-based teacher educators could be proletarianised. Arguably the same logic can be applied to all academics. Citing Slaughter and Leslie (1997), the authors summarised the indicators of academic capitalism as comprising competition over grant income, competition between institutions over tuition fees, and the commercialisation of intellectual property rights. They argued that academics would have to become entrepreneurial to survive. They suggested that the value attributed by the market to the different types of academic work in this capitalist society would determine whether academics would thrive (through salary increases, promotion), or become vulnerable to “downward social mobility” (Ellis et al., 2014, p. 34). Typically, work that results in research

publications and grant income would lead to prosperity in the environment of contemporary academic capitalism.

Massification has also resulted in the privatisation of higher education, with a host of new players providing tertiary qualifications, including degrees and diplomas (Roberts, 2013). Altbach (2015) posited that massification and inadequate government funding for higher education are the reasons for the rapid growth of the private higher education sector. The author further stated that worldwide, private higher education is the most rapidly growing sector. In emerging economies, the private sector accommodates students who have special occupational interests, or students who cannot be enrolled in public institutions (Altbach, 2015). In addition to the proliferation of competition, and alternative market players in the private sector, there exists a “disrupted knowledge production and consumption system” (p. 8), where higher education sites include “virtual, for-profit, open, corporate, technical, consortia, franchise, offshore, museum, diversification”, many associated with distance learning (Morley, 2003, p. 8). These shifts, together with the interrelated and overlapping effects of massification, managerialism and marketisation on higher education, have significantly altered the academic profession — specifically the roles and identities assumed by the academic.

2.2.5. Consequences: The Shifting Roles, Identities and Morale of the Academic

At the core of the university lies the academic profession. Essential to the success of every university is a suitably qualified, committed and effective faculty (Altbach, 2015). Traditionally academics were autonomous, professional, expert teachers and research scholars, who were involved in making decisions that affected their universities, through collegial association. Now it is widely believed that they have lost some autonomy as well as their influence on the management of the institution through shared governance (Altbach, 2015; Parker, 2011). Parker (2011) suggested that academics have reacted in two ways to increasing managerialism: either by becoming part of the managerialist system, taking on new managerial roles within the university structure, or by withdrawing to different degrees from involvement in their institution’s decision-making. The latter sentiment concurs with that of Dearlove (2002), who argued that academics have resisted becoming involved in institutional governance, “choosing to withdraw from ‘administration’ in order to better advance their own careers through research that enables them to avoid a commitment to the good governance of any university” (p. 265).

Marketisation has forced academics to be more adaptable, responsive, self-motivated and entrepreneurial, despite being under more pressure than ever to do their regular work (Morley, 2003). Morley (2003) asserted that intellectual property and professional expertise were increasingly constructed through the needs of students behaving like consumers, with buying power and choice. The emphasis on career and skills-based university education saw academics having to deliver programmes aimed at ensuring that students became employable and that workplace needs were met, with a view to improving the national economy (Dearlove, 2002). Academics, already under pressure to increase their output of high profile research, now had to design new courses (Nixon, 1996). Due to marketisation, lecturers were also required to be adaptable facilitators and evaluators to increase student throughput and income, and the quality of curriculum outcomes were assessed by overseers using external indicators of performance. Churchman (2006) described the “fragmented medley of tasks that are now the life of an academic” (p.13) as the outcome of many conflicting commitments. Academics are torn between commitment to their discipline, their desire to inspire students, their wish to generate new knowledge, and their awareness of potentially lucrative market-related opportunities, both locally and globally. Churchman (2006) argued that the “notion of a single ‘academic identity’ may be obsolete in an environment in which the academic role is becoming increasingly diverse” (p. 3). The author concluded that research pertaining to the academic profession needs to recognise the “variable internal factors in universities and the prevalence of diversity and difference of academics” (p.14). This view was shared by Harris (2005) who alluded to the “fragmented nature of professional identity” and suggested that “the university is a complex and differentiated institution where different constructions of ‘academic’ coexist” (p. 425).

Furthermore, due to the influence of managerialism, academics, not unlike corporate employees, are required to perform academic work according to performance management targets that demonstrate the contribution they have made (Winter, 2009). Academics are “increasingly being redefined as teaching, research and administrative employees of the university, subject to its strategic objectives and direction, and driven and evaluated by corporate KPIs” (Parker, 2011, p. 444). Managerialism has resulted in increased reporting and other administrative demands on academics by university management and government (Parker, 2011), while at the same time student/staff ratios have increased because of massification. Hence a problematic by-product of these changes is that of an increased academic workload, as well as the varying nature of the work. Tight (2010) studied the degree to which the common conception of contemporary academics being “over-worked” was

justified. The author claimed that government, research councils, national funding bodies, and the employing institutions seem to demand “more and more for relatively less and less reward” (p. 200) from their academics. Academics are expected to teach bigger classes, conduct more research, publish more frequently, in addition to documenting and motivating their activities, completing forms and undergoing assessments. However, according to Tight, “the contemporary academic perception that workloads are increasing, and are indeed at untenable levels, may be directly linked to the increased amount of time spent on administration” (2010, p. 214). Assumed to be the least enjoyed part of the academic role, the author concluded that rather than the amount of time being the undesirable change, the balance of the academic’s workload is of concern. There is less time available to be spent on personal research, as well as teaching, than the academic would prefer. In a global study that investigated the changing higher education landscape in twenty-two countries, South African researchers (Ntshoe, Higgs, Higgs, & Wolhuter, 2008) reported that their interviewees “overwhelmingly claimed that their roles as academics and researchers had shifted from that of scholars and creators of knowledge to those of administrators and managers” (p. 398). A metaphor of academics as components in a factory production system was used to illustrate this: “academics are functionaries and administrators and not academics any longer and this reduces true academics to production machines in a production process” (Ntshoe et al., 2008, p. 398).

The collective effect of massification, managerialism and marketisation therefore has called into question the present nature of the academic identity and consequently, the morale and commitment of academics. Taylor (1999) argued that the traditional academic identity was threefold, comprising identification with an institution, identification with an academic discipline, and identification with the academic profession. Becher (as cited in Taylor, 1999, p. 41) claimed that “academics identify more strongly with the ‘characteristics and structures of the knowledge domains’ of their disciplines than with their institution”. According to Taylor (1999), identification with the academic profession used to be based on the notions of “academic autonomy” (i.e. individual freedom to choose the area of inquiry), and “academic freedom” (i.e. a collective ownership of the teaching process). Increasingly, however, this professional identity is being threatened through diminishing autonomy and academic freedom (Altbach, 2015; Harris, 2005; Winter, 2009; Winter et al., 2000). Harris (2005) claimed that “the marketization of education and research has brought into question the autonomy and expertise traditionally enjoyed by academics” (p. 424), while Clegg (2008) suggested that “traditional academic identities based on collegiality and the exercise of

autonomy...are indeed under threat” (p. 331). Henkel (2005) summed up the changes to the identity and autonomy of academics as follows: “The control of the scientists had been challenged and the disciplinary culture was now informed by a managerial culture, and, increasingly, an industrial presence in the research councils” (p. 159).

Much has been written about the effects of reduced autonomy on the morale and commitment of academics. Dearlove (2002) pointed out that “top-down” control of academics produces mistrust and diminishes commitment. This concurred with Winter et al. (2000), who suggested that academics experience reduced levels of organisational commitment, as well as increased work alienation, when the influence of managerialism conflicts with their expectations of autonomy. Furthermore, Smeenk et al. (2006) asserted that “the historical inheritance of these [higher education] institutions — in which collegiality, academic freedom and autonomy are upheld as cherished values — does not easily mix with the new tasks that go with the concept of managerialism and the new societal demands for public accountability, efficiency and competitiveness” (p. 2036). Alluding to evidence from previous studies, these authors posited that the subsequent incongruence in the institution’s values and the academic’s professional values may results in “unintended behaviour” on the part of the academic, such as reduced organisational commitment. Similarly, Winter (2009), studying the identities of “managed academics”, suggested that academics that resist managerialism and experience “values incongruence” will disengage with their institution, instead demonstrating more commitment to their discipline than to the institution.

Another of the prevailing tensions exist because of what Nixon (1996) referred to as a “dual identity”, where an academic owns both an identity as a teacher and an identity as a researcher. The author contended that the changing circumstances of the academic profession places more emphasis on the academic’s identity as a researcher, than as a teacher. As a researcher, it is now necessary to raise external funding. Billot (2011) claimed that “whilst undertaking research was once the domain for only certain academics, there is now pressure for the majority of academics to be involved in research activities” (p. 39). Harris (2005) also spoke of the changing balance between teaching and research. The author argued that research now dominates and is at the core of the academic’s professional identity. However, Lucas (2006) asserted that the “emphasis placed on the ‘academic currencies’ of publications in international refereed journals and research grants, disadvantages those who are unable to play the ‘research game’” (as cited in Waitere, Wright, Tremaine, Brown, & Pausé, 2011, p. 207). Furthermore, Alvesson and Spicer (2017) posited that “publishing is often not just a

form of intellectual work — it becomes a kind of identity work. When measured on the basis of outcomes, we find our naked and exposed self at stake” (p. 39). Research outcomes have become entwined with an academics’ sense of self, emphasising individualism, rather than promoting the collective (Alvesson & Spicer, 2017).

In conclusion, it seems that the changes in higher education have had a mostly unfavourable impact on academic life, affecting the professional identity, autonomy, status and commitment of the academic. While private sector type management practices may deliver substantial cost efficiencies for the institution, this may come at a high “human” price for academics with a strong sense of their professional identity (Winter et al., 2000). Commenting on the current state of the academic profession, Altbach (2015) claimed: “in general, the ‘best and brightest’ are not attracted to the universities” (p. 21). This does not bode well for the future of the global higher education sector. In the South African higher education sector, these challenges exist too. In addition to these, however, South Africa has a host of unique higher education challenges, mostly because of its notorious socio-political history and the consequences thereof. The next section provides an overview of the higher education sector in South Africa and its concomitant challenges.

2.3. The South African Higher Education Context

2.3.1. Introduction

Altbach et al. (2009) argued that public universities “always operate in a country-specific political and economic context as well as in an historical context and in an increasingly globalized international context” (p. 76). In a similar vein, Scott (2000) claimed that since most universities are state institutions, they are “still locked into national contexts” (p. 5) despite globalisation. Indeed, although the global higher education issues described earlier are also relevant in South Africa, the country has a unique socio-political history that bears heavily on its higher education sector. Suffice to say that due to this history, South Africa was relatively isolated from academic communities elsewhere in the world until 1994, and therefore followed the global trends in higher education approximately a decade later than most other countries (Bundy, 2006). Since the country achieved democracy in 1994, the higher education sector has undergone profound transformation, not least of all becoming one coordinated system instead of a largely disjointed one.

The South African higher education sector has taken great strides forward in terms of research output. Measured according to the Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET)'s policy for the annual accreditation of scholarly publications, peer-reviewed research outputs grew from 6 660.24 units in 2004 to 12 363.81 units in 2012 (Simpson & Gevers, 2016). These authors pointed out that this growth in research outputs is apparent at nearly all universities to various degrees and is not specific to a few institutions.

Testifying to the remarkable growth in research outputs, the South African higher education sector was ranked one of the six “largest improvers” in terms of output¹⁵ in the 2017 Universitas 21 ranking of national systems of higher education (Williams, Leahy, & Jensen, 2017). Overall, the South African higher education system was ranked 37th out of 50 national systems, where each national system is measured in terms of resources, environment, connectivity and output. Furthermore, when controlling for the level of economic development (using GDP per capita), South Africa moved up to third position in the 2017 rankings, faring best in the category of connectivity.¹⁶ Similarly, in the 2013 Quacquarelli Symonds¹⁷ ranking of BRIC universities, eight South African universities featured in the top 100 of this system, with half of those in the top 50 (Simpson & Gevers, 2016).

While the South African higher education system has thus seen some significant improvements and successes, the system remains one beset with challenges. The review will next discuss the historical background in which it is located, the size and structure of the system, its governance, the student body, and how the system is funded. Finally, and most importantly in the context of this thesis, the South African academic profession is discussed, and concerns for its welfare are raised.

2.3.2. Historical Background

Prior to becoming a democracy in 1994, South Africa was governed by a political system that was based on principles of racial segregation and discrimination, namely that of apartheid. During the apartheid period, government policies in higher education were directed towards ensuring the interests of the white minority. These policies directed resource allocations,

¹⁵ Output measures include indicators such as participation rates, research performance, the existence of world class universities, and graduate employability.

¹⁶ Connectivity measures include linkages with indicators such as relationships with business, community engagement and international links.

¹⁷ Quacquarelli Symonds (QS) is a leading global higher education company best known for publishing the QS World University Rankings – one of the world's most popular university ranking systems.

student participation, and research funding according, and defied international tendencies (Hall & Symes, 2005). Badat (2009) observed that South African higher education was “profoundly shaped” by apartheid, through which “patterns of systemic inclusion and marginalisation of particular social classes and groups” (p. 457) were established. While in other parts of the world, around the 1980s, state funding was being used to fund massification, in South Africa, it remained constant until 1994, in conjunction with historically white universities enjoying a large degree of institutional autonomy (Bundy, 2006). Consequently, higher education was “characterised by deep, racially-based physical and intellectual divisions; a wide range of quality of teaching, learning and research with very distinct extremes” (Ballim et al., 2016, p. 65). Separate learning institutions were set up for black¹⁸ and white¹⁹ population groups that provided differentiated educational offerings according to what the government deemed suitable for the different roles they believed the two groups should play in society (Bozalek & Boughey, 2012). For example, a historically black institution (HBI), also referred to as a historically disadvantaged institution (HDI), was “more likely to offer nursing rather than medicine, and public administration rather than political philosophy” (Bozalek & Boughey, 2012, p. 691). As Bozalek and Boughey (2012) pointed out, the HBIs and the historically white institutions (HWIs) or historically advantaged institutions (HAIs), were governed and resourced in different ways, significantly affecting the degree of administrative and financial autonomy of the institutions, the quality of education that could be provided, the location of the institutions and so forth. HWIs were given preferential treatment on all accounts. Furthermore, HBIs were more tightly financially controlled and were therefore not able to develop the requisite skills to administer their own finances, a legacy that would negatively impact on some of these institutions post-1994 (Bozalek & Boughey, 2012).

Webbstock (2016) identified three key themes that characterise post-democracy South Africa higher education, comprising: policy intentionality, the achievement of social justice, and becoming part of the global knowledge society. Policy intentionality refers to government’s role in driving policies, processes and mechanisms to ensure improved equity of access and student success across the demographic groups, toward the country’s social and economic development. Webbstock described the objective of government policy “to steer a deeply divided sector into a new era characterised by integration, a more rational institutional

¹⁸ “Black” refers to South Africans of African, Coloured and Indian ethnicities as defined in the Employment Equity Act No. 55 of 1998.

¹⁹ This category includes English and Afrikaans-speaking white South Africans.

landscape and the achievement of national goals. These goals include greater equity of access and success for students from all population groups of South Africa in order to further the economic and social development of the country (2016, p. 18). Achievement of social justice relates to transformation of the system to guarantee equal opportunities for all and a redressing of past inequities. According to Webbstock, “[a] transformed higher education system would play a critical role in an emerging, non-racial, progressive democracy, in producing critical, independent citizens as well as skilled and socially-committed graduates who would be capable of contributing to social and economic development” (2016, p. 22). The final theme refers to internationalisation and the global context, and the adoption of global best practices in higher education, after emerging from the country’s relative isolation prior to 1994. These include the issues discussed in the previous section, such as massification, the rise of managerialism, the influence of neo-liberalism and marketisation, as well as the extensive use of quality control mechanisms. Addressing these various themes involves several tensions, such as enrolment growth versus sufficient funding, accountability versus institutional autonomy (Bawa, 2017) and so forth.

2.3.3. Evolution of the Sector: Structure and Governance

Higher education student numbers have grown dramatically post-1994. Public higher education, encompassing traditional, comprehensive and universities of technology, as well as the national distance learning university, grew from 480,000 enrolments in 1995 (Universities South Africa, 2015) to 975,837 enrolments in 2016 (CHE 2018). In addition, there were 88,203 students in the private education sector in 2015 (Department of Higher Education and Training [DHET], 2017). Demographically, the student body has changed dramatically, coinciding with a notable increase in access for African students, this group constituting 72% of the 2016 total headcount public sector²⁰ enrolments (CHE 2018), and comprising the majority of students in most individual institutions today (Webbstock, 2016).

With a view to achieving the young democracy’s aspirations, the government embarked on a massive restructuring of the higher education institutional landscape from 2001–2004. New institutions were established through mergers, and old ones were eliminated (Webbstock, 2016). In a report reflecting on the current state of higher education, Universities South Africa (2015) stated:

²⁰ This review focussed on the public higher education sector since the study’s research site was a public university.

Today, 21 years after the demise of the apartheid system, higher education has shifted, in its structural characteristics, from a fragmented and structurally racialised system of 36 public and more than 300 private institutions in 1994 to a relatively (at least formally) more integrated system of 26 public universities (traditional, comprehensive and universities of technology) and 95 private higher education institutions in 2015 (p.1).

Leibowitz, Bozalek, van Schalkwyk, and Winberg (2015) described the current South African public higher education system as “hierarchical”. Traditional research-intensive universities, of which there are twelve, are at the highest level in the hierarchy. The eight universities of technology offer vocation orientated and technology-based qualifications, mainly at the undergraduate level, while the six comprehensive universities focus on mass higher education, offering vocational and professional qualification at both undergraduate and postgraduate levels. This structure evolved from the apartheid era legacy of separate higher education institutions for blacks and whites, and therefore some of the HDIs still struggle financially, affecting staff morale (Leibowitz et al., 2015). Hence, although the key differences between the present day higher education institutions are no longer related to race and ethnicity, there are significant differences in terms of resource availability, including infrastructure, funding, staff qualifications and so forth (Koen, 2003).

The new structure and the mergers have not been without challenges. McKenna (2016) pointed out that some mergers met with resistance from various political stakeholders, and that it had the effect of unsettling many academics. The author alluded to the differences between the types of institutions that were being merged, and the consequential misalignment with the disciplinary identities that some of the affected academics had previously been comfortable with. Furthermore, it was suggested that the three types of institutions now formed, although differentiated to a point, lack “a clear academic project tied to their institutional type and thus are vulnerable to academic drift” (McKenna, 2016, p. 153). The author argued that there remains a battle between the degree to which the institutions are sufficiently differentiated to be fit for different purposes, and the extent to which they have become too homogenised. The differentiation of the higher education system continues to be disputed. As Badat (2010) stated: “differentiation has been and remains a difficult, contentious and challenging policy issue for a number of reasons” (p. 10). HDIs legitimately feared that a policy entailing diversity and differentiation might perpetuate the historical patterns of placing HDIs at a disadvantage, and conversely, HAIs at an advantage. However, the opposing view argues that due to South Africa’s highly varied and diverse social and economic needs, “a responsive higher education system requires a diverse spectrum of

institutions” (Badat, 2010, p. 11). Prior to the mergers, the South African higher education sector comprised universities and “technikons”. The latter awarded diplomas, not degrees, and focused purely on technical training, rather than on conducting research. It was therefore not necessary for academic staff to hold master’s degrees or doctorates; instead industry experience was advantageous. On the other hand, universities produced most of the research graduates and research output. With the change in structure, all three institutional types, namely the traditional, comprehensive, and universities of technology, were expected to conduct research, albeit to different extents. However, there are vast disparities in the research output of the three institutional types, where in 2012, traditional universities produced 78% of research publications. In comparison, comprehensive universities produced 17%, and the universities of technology only 5% of research publications (Simpson & Gevers, 2016). The 2013 White Paper for Post School Education and Training (DHET 2013) recognised the need for revised, purposeful differentiation since it acknowledged “that much of the current differentiation was the result of historical legacy rather than being policy-driven and, as a result, had led to unacceptable inequality and inadequate resourcing” (Simpson & Gevers, 2016, p. 215). Furthermore, the 2013 White Paper, while advocating continued use of the current classifications (i.e. traditional, comprehensive and universities of technology), suggested a “continuum [of institutions which] would range from largely undergraduate institutions to specialised, research-intensive universities which offer teaching programmes from undergraduate to doctoral level” (Simpson & Gevers, 2016, p. 215). Cooper (2015) hypothesised that instead of the existing university classifications, a more accurate differentiation would be based on the institutions’ research-intensity. The author argued, using data from 2008–2012, that three bands exist: “an ‘upper band’ of five élite universities (with indicators of high research-intensity); a ‘middle band’ of seven average universities (with a moderate research profile); and a ‘lower band’ of eleven disadvantaged universities (with a relatively weak research profile)” (Cooper, 2015, p. 249). Moreover, Cooper claimed that when viewed through the lens of social justice, it is the social class of South Africans, rather than issues of race and ethnicity, that determines in which bands students find themselves.

Having inherited a “fractured, insular, elite and uneven” higher education system (Webbstock, 2016, p. 5), the post-1994 government has directed its policy frameworks toward the development of a transformed, integrated and unified system that will contribute to the social and economic needs of the new democracy (Bozalek & Boughey, 2012; Webbstock, 2016). The Department of Education’s White Paper (3 of 1997) charted three fundamental steering mechanisms that entailed:

1. an increase in participation rates in the higher education system;
2. a focus on planning to increase responsiveness in the sector; and
3. use of funding, based on performance, to ensure transformation.

These resulted in the introduction of qualifications frameworks and external quality assurance, as well as national plans and forecasts for institutions (Webbstock, 2016). The intention was for state objectives to have been achieved through “cooperative governance” (Webbstock, 2016, p. 26) or “negotiated self-regulation” (Ballim et al., 2016, p. 79). While government would direct policy through planning and funding levers, individual institutions would remain largely autonomous, being accountable to government but managing their own resources (Webbstock, 2016). However, higher education governance saw a marked increase in state control during the first decade post-apartheid (Hall & Symes, 2005) and this trend has continued since then. Lange and Luescher-Mamashela (2016) identified three distinct periods of South African higher education governance since 1994, each with specific system level and institution level characteristics. (Appendix B summarises their work, providing the reader with an overview of how governance of the higher education sector has evolved.) According to Lange and Luescher-Mamashela (2016), “every building block of the steering system seemed to have multiplied the size of the management tier at institutions and created greater distance between university leadership and the academics” (p. 121). Indeed, a report from a special task team investigating higher education institutional autonomy and academic freedom, indicated a growing rift between university leadership and academics (Lange & Luescher-Mamashela, 2016).

2.3.4. Public University Funding

A recent review estimated that only 12% of the entire education budget is spent on higher education in South Africa, compared with 20%, 23.4% and 19.8% for Africa as a whole, the OECD, and the rest of the world, respectively (Webbstock, 2016). The South African budget spend on university funding was 0.74% of the country’s GDP in 2015/6 (CHE 2017). This is on par with the 0.78% of GDP estimated for the whole African continent, but considerably lower than the OECD at 1.21% or the rest of the world at 0.84% (Webbstock, 2016). Worse still, government spending per FTE enrolled student decreased by 1.1% annually, in real terms, between 2000 and 2010. On the other hand, tuition fees per FTE student went up by 2.5% per annum (Webbstock, 2016).

Government subsidies, comprising block and earmarked grants²¹, are referred to as first stream income. There are two other recurrent sources of public university funding in South Africa, namely, tuition fees (second stream income) and other university income (third stream). Third stream income comes from sources such as consulting, provision of research services, and university/private sector linkages (Altbach et al., 2009). In 2012/13, first stream income comprised 40% of total income, while second and third stream income comprised 31% and 29% of total income, respectively (CHE 2016). Simkins et al. (2016) cautioned that it is concerning that the proportion of tuition fees rose from 27% in 2007/08 to 31% in 2012/13, while the proportion of third stream income dropped in the same period. Neither have block and earmarked grants kept pace with the student enrolment growth rate (Simkins et al., 2016), bringing into question the capacity for the public higher education sector to maintain the growth in headcount enrolment rates seen over the past few years. Funding constraints have several dire consequences. While most students from disadvantaged schooling backgrounds would benefit from extended curricula, for example, current provision only allows for 15% of the student intake to benefit (McKenna, 2016). Of huge concern is the underfunding of academic staff and consequently the problematic student to staff ratio that has deteriorated over the past two decades (Webbstock, 2016), as well as the pressure placed on academic staff to assist in finding ways to increase third stream income (Webbstock & Schoole, 2016).

2.3.5. The Student Body

When the post-apartheid government came into power, the need to increase access into higher education for age-eligible South Africans became a top priority, for both social and economic reasons. Although massification was already an established worldwide trend, in South Africa, it was accompanied by the desire to provide higher education access to the vast majority of South Africans that had previously been denied it (Webbstock & Schoole, 2016). However, as Webbstock and Schoole (2016) wrote: “The pressure for massification is complicated by the damage wrought on primary and secondary education by the apartheid system and its legacy, resulting in major variation in the levels of preparedness of students to undertake undergraduate and postgraduate studies” (p. 294). This section briefly reviews key statistics relevant to the student body, followed by a discussion of student dissatisfaction and the protests that have recently upset the South African public higher education system.

²¹ Block grants are based on historical institutional data, and can be used for any legitimate university purpose, while earmarked grants must be spent on designated expenditure aligned to government objectives.

2.3.5.1. Headcount Enrolments

The student headcount enrolment profiles in terms of race, gender, and field of study, respectively, are briefly discussed in this section. Appendix C compares pertinent 2016²² headcount enrolment data with that of 2007 for all three sub-categories, and the respective tables illustrate the diversity of the student body that South African academics teach.

Headcount Enrolments - by Race

The overall number of headcount enrolments increased by 28% from 2007 to 2016. The headcount enrolments in 2007 and 2016, respectively, by race, and in total, are shown in Table C1 in Appendix C. Both the absolute and proportional headcount enrolments of African students have increased significantly (from 63% in 2007 to 72% in 2016), while the proportion of coloured and Indian student enrolments have remained flat, or declined, respectively. In absolute terms, the headcount enrolments of coloured students have increased, while the headcount enrolments of Indian students have marginally shrunk. Headcount enrolments of white students have shrunk significantly, both in absolute and proportionate terms (from 24% in 2007 to 16% in 2016).

Headcount Enrolments - by Gender

There has been a shift towards greater enrolment of women. Table C2 (Appendix C) shows the headcount enrolments in 2007 and 2016, respectively, by gender. Table C2 shows that 2016 enrolments of male students were 42% compared with females at 58%. In absolute terms, enrolments have increased for both genders; however, female enrolments have grown at a faster rate since 2007.

Field of Study and Type of Qualification

In 2015, 82% of student headcount enrolments were for undergraduate qualifications, whereas only 16% were for postgraduate degrees. The remaining 2% were attributed to “occasional students” (CHE 2017). In terms of field of study, Table C3 (Appendix C) shows that headcount enrolments in the fields of “Business and Commerce”, “Humanities”, and “Science, Engineering and Technology” are each in the region of 25–30%, whereas there are fewer in “Education” (17%). From the perspective of equity, Bundy (2006) highlighted that

²² This was the most recent data that could be obtained. Comparing it to 2007 data provided a comparison over a ten-year period.

there is a disproportionate number of African students enrolled in the Humanities as opposed to Commerce and Science, Engineering and Technology. Furthermore, there are discrepancies in enrolments in undergraduate and diploma courses versus postgraduate courses, contributing towards a phenomenon referred to as "the skewed revolution" (Cooper & Subotsky, 2001). In 2015, 11% of all African students were enrolled for postgraduate qualifications in 2015, while this percentage was 16% for white students (CHE 2017). The situation has improved somewhat in the field of study domain, especially in the Humanities. According to CHE (2017), 25% of the 2015 headcount enrolments in the Humanities comprised African students, compared with 24% of the enrolments comprising white students. However, further adjustments are needed in the field of Science, Engineering and Technology, where in 2015, 28% of enrolments in this field comprised African students, compared with 36% comprising white students.

2.3.5.2. Participation Rates

Despite the growth in headcount enrolments, the overall participation rate (also referred to as the gross enrolment ratio)²³ was only 18% in 2016 (CHE 2018). Participation rates in the most developed nations have reached between 70–80%, with the BRICS reaching 37.5%, while Africa has lagged behind at approximately 6% (Webbstock, 2016). Furthermore, South African participation rates still differ considerably across race categories. The 2016 participation rate was 16% for African students, while it was 15% for coloured students, 47% for Indian students and 50% for white students. Participation rates also differ by gender. Participation rates are higher for women than for men and have increased at a higher rate over a ten-year period. In 2016, the participation rate was 15% for male students, increased from 14% in 2007, whereas the participation rate for female students grew from 18% in 2007, to 22% in 2016 (CHE 2014, 2018).

2.3.5.3. Throughput Rates

Yet another cause for concern relates to throughput and dropout rates, both in terms of absolute numbers and inequity. According to Ballim et al. (2016), "[an] often quoted statistic, which has remained relatively static over the last decade, is that around 50% of students who enter higher education studies will leave with a completed qualification and that only in the region of 30% of graduates complete their studies in minimum time" (p. 95). In the instance

²³ The total headcount enrolment calculated as a percentage of the national population of 20-24 years old.

of a three-year degree at contact institutions, for example, 30% of the 2010 cohort graduated in the minimum three years, 59% graduated after six years, and 41% in total had dropped out at the end of six years (CHE 2017). In terms of demographics, in the same 2010 cohort, 19% of African students graduated in the minimum three years, compared with 17% of coloured students, 17% of Indian students and 31% of white students. A total of 45% of African students graduated after six years, compared with 40% of coloured students, 45% of Indian students and 53% of white students. Finally, at the end of six years, a total of 55% of African students dropped out, compared with 60% of coloured students, 55% of Indian students, and 47% of white students (CHE, 2017). One reason for these discrepancies is the “poor level of academic under-preparedness of school-leavers for existing university education” (Ballim et al., 2016, p. 67). The degree of under-preparedness, as a result of the deficient schooling system under the apartheid government, varies according to social factors including race, geography and language. Ballim et al. (2016) pointed out the tension between on the one hand, meeting the need for higher graduation rates and learning quality — which could be addressed by enrolling only the more prepared school-leavers — and on the other hand, ensuring that the rural, largely underprivileged African students are not excluded since they are the “intended beneficiaries of a policy aimed at equity and redress” (p. 6). However, as McKenna (2016) pointed out, “attaining limited increases in graduation rates through enormous increases in failure and dropout rates does not constitute social justice” (p. 178).

2.3.5.4. Student Dissatisfaction

Reflecting on transformation in South African higher education, Universities South Africa (2015, p. 11) summarised the current university environment as follows:

There has been much written about the sense of deep alienation and marginalisation felt by many black students at former white universities [and] for black students, having few black role models within the academy, and not seeing their own existential experiences being sufficiently reflected in largely Eurocentric curriculum systems.

Furthermore, McKenna (2016) noted that while several student support structures have been set up, such as Financial Aid Offices, and Counselling, Health and Writing Centres, recent audits have shown that these have not been integrated with the formal curriculum. This inadequacy exists despite abundant evidence that students’ financial, emotional and physical well-being, together with a university environment that is supportive and positive, are critical success factors for students. Another challenging area is the shortage of student accommodation, often compromising students’ physical safety as a result.

During 2015 and 2016, the South African higher education sector experienced major unrest initiated by a series of student protests. In March 2015, a movement called “#RhodesMustFall” started at the University of Cape Town, demanding the removal of a statue of Cecil John Rhodes. Their intention was to highlight institutional racialism and the need for education to be decolonised (Chaudhuri, 2016). This movement quickly spread throughout South Africa, sparking debate and controversy in the public domain, as well as in the education sector. #RhodesMustFall was followed later in the year by another student uprising, referred to as “#FeesMustFall” (FMF), this time beginning at a Gauteng-based university. Initially this protest was initiated in response to a proposed fee increase, but it continued with the themes underpinning #RhodesMustFall. The movement rapidly spread to another university in the Western Cape and then to other South African universities, and in some instances led to violence, police intervention, and heightened security on campuses throughout the country. Students were detained, classes were stopped, and exams deferred. As Jansen (2017) wrote “even during the long, dark days of apartheid, no university had ever experienced this level of student protest in terms of scale, scope, intensity, and in the course of time, violence” (p. 1). The protests caused a significant upheaval that dominated the South African media during that period. Across the country, university management’s handling of the crisis was publicly criticised in the popular press, while the press also reported that there were mixed reactions towards the protests by staff members, including academics. Appendix D displays an example of a print media article related to this.

McKenna (2016) articulated the negative effects that the student protests have on South African Universities as follows: “Not only are teaching days lost and property damaged, but also the learning culture, so vital to student engagement and success, suffers ongoing problems as a result of these upheavals” (p. 176). The student protests took their toll on academics too. The following statement was made in one of the popular media publications: “The question of free education and the protests are no longer just being tackled by the students, but also the academics who are becoming more influential in the trajectory of where the pieces will fall” (Pather, 2016).

Having highlighted some additional challenges facing South African higher education institutions and its academics, the next section discusses pertinent issues directly related to academic staffing.

2.3.6. The Academic Faculty

This section describes the academic staff complement in South Africa, including its size, the staff-to-student ratio, academic staff employment status and staff profiles.

2.3.6.1. Size and Staff-to-Student Ratio

The large increase in student enrolments over the past 20 years “has not been accompanied by an equivalent expansion in the number of academics” (DHET 2013, p. 35). Webbstock and Sehoole (2016) noted that while there was a 92% growth in headcount enrolments from 1994 to 2012, from 493 342 to 953 373, respectively, over the same period there was only a 36% growth in the permanent academic staff complement. The 2016 FTE staff-to-student ratio is 1:26 (CHE 2018). When reviewing the 2013–2018 QS international rankings, the ranking category pertaining to the staff-to-student ratio, is the one in which the country consistently fares worst. Even within the BRICS ranking, none of South Africa’s higher education institutions were listed in the top 100 in terms of the indicator based on staff-to-student ratio (Simpson & Gevers, 2016).

2.3.6.2. Temporary or Contract Staffing

In the face of financial constraints, a response to the vastly increased student enrolments has been a growing reliance on temporary or contract staff to assist with teaching tasks (Webbstock & Sehoole, 2016). This approach is in line with global trends and has been motivated as being in the interest of financial efficiency. However, Altbach et al. (2009) argued that academics should be fully engaged in research, teaching, and related academic responsibilities, to be most effective, and thus full-time academic appointments should constitute a high percentage of all academic staff appointments. Contrary to this, the proportion of temporary appointments is high, and growing, in South Africa. Table 1 shows the headcount of academic staff members by employment status: permanent versus temporary.

Table 1 Headcount of Academic Staff Members by Employment Status

	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Permanent	16,684	16,935	17,451	17,838	18,250	18,566	19,213
Temporary	29,895	33,048	34,122	34,733	32,241	35,508	35,840
Total	46,579	49,983	51,573	52,571	50,491	54,074	55,053

Source: CHE, 2018

Table 1 shows both the absolute and relative increases of permanent academic staff headcount versus temporary staff. Despite the huge increases in headcount enrolments over the same period, permanent academic staff headcount only grew by 15% from 16,684 in 2010 to 19,213 in 2016. However, temporary academic staff headcount grew by 20% from 29,895 in 2010 to 35,840 in 2016, comprising 65% of the overall academic staff complement (CHE 2018).

2.3.6.3. Staff Profiles

The legacy of apartheid and colonialism resulted in a profoundly skewed academic staff composition in 1994. Eight-three percent of South African academics at universities were white, and 68% were male. African academics comprised 10% of the academic staff, albeit that Africans constituted 80% of the population (Universities South Africa, 2015). However, while the National Commission on Higher Education's 1996 report focused strongly on transformation, massification and access in terms of the student body, less attention was given to the academic staff profile (Ballim et al., 2016). Webbstock (2016) noted that government's approach toward achieving equity in academic staffing has continued to be "one of monitoring and stimulation, rather than direct regulation" (p. 88). The next section discusses the details of the academic faculty by race and qualification.

Academic Staff by Race and Qualification

Table 2 shows the most recent breakdown of the overall academic staff complement (i.e. permanent and temporary) by race and qualification.

Table 2 Academic Staff by Race and Qualification

2016							
	UG Dip/Cert	UG Degrees	PG up to Hons	Masters	Doctoral	Other*	All
African	838	2,275	2,478	4,629	3,608	7,508	21,336
Coloured	133	395	346	773	648	1,068	3,363
Indian	90	798	355	1,017	1,000	1,445	4,705
White	485	2,110	2,195	5,120	7,293	7,411	24,614
Unknown	38	73	62	180	506	176	1,035
Total	1,584	5,651	5,436	11,719	13,055	17,608	55,053

Source: CHE, 2018

UG = Undergraduate; Dip = Diploma; Cert = Certificate, PG = Postgraduate

* Other includes all unknowns and qualifications labelled as other

The full 2016 academic staff complement within South African universities comprised 39% African academics, 6% coloured academics, 9% Indian academics, and 45% white academics. Although there has been some progress towards greater representivity in terms of the country's demographics, there is a need for more progress in this regard (HESA 2011; Webbstock & Sehoole, 2016). In terms of qualifications, only 24% of the total academic staff have doctorates, and 21% have master's degrees. Additionally, the composition of academic staff with doctoral degrees is racially skewed, for example, with African academics comprising 28% of academics holding doctorates compared with white academics constituting 56% (CHE 2018). While equity adjustments have been relatively slow in terms of race, there has been more success in terms of gender, as reviewed next.

Academic Staff by Gender

Table 3 shows the headcount of academic staff members by gender.

Table 3 Headcount of Academic Staff Members by Gender

	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Women	21,611	23,660	24,704	25,171	24,141	26,308	27,126
Men	24,963	26,321	26,865	27,397	26,350	27,765	27,925
Total	46,579	49,983	51,573	52,571	50,491	54,074	55,053

Source: CHE, 2018

Staff demographics have improved dramatically in terms of gender equity. Over the period 2010 to 2016, the ratio of women academic staff grew from being 46% in 2010 to 49% in 2016 (CHE 2018). However, Webbstock and Sehoole (2016) pointed out that gender disparity still exists at the more senior levels, a trend that is seen at higher education institutions in other countries too, including in developed nations. Table 4 shows the 2015²⁴ breakdown of permanent academic staff by academic rank and gender.

Table 4 Academic of Staff Members by Academic Rank and Gender

Academic Rank	Professor	Associate Professor	Senior Lecturer	Lecturer	Junior Lecturer & Below	All*
Female	617	725	2,169	4,337	678	8,526
Male	1,602	1,188	2,668	3,789	527	9,774
Total	2,219	1,913	4,837	8,126	1,205	18,300

Source: HEMIS, 2016

In total, 68% of the most senior academics (comprising professors and associate professors) were male: 72% of the professors, and 62% of the associate professors, were male.

Thus, despite the changing race and gender demographics of academic staff, significant concern has been expressed that progress regarding transformation has been too slow. The Commission on Employment Equity (as cited in Webbstock & Sehoole, 2016, p. 290) noted the following:

Race and gender are still the two major factors that determine where a person sits in the academic ‘hierarchy’ in South Africa. White males come first and on top, even with respect to disability. They are followed, in monotonous and predictable fashion, by White females and then Indian males. The country is rigidly locked into this paradigm.

Yet another concern regarding academic staffing, albeit not unique to South Africa, is that of the ageing academic body, discussed next.

Academic Staff by Age

Altbach et al. (2009) pointed out that in many countries, the academic profession is ageing: “In much of the world, half or more of the professoriate is getting close to retirement. In many countries, too few new PhDs are being produced to replace those leaving the profession, and

²⁴ 2015 is the most recent data available showing both academic rank and gender.

many new doctorates prefer to work outside of academe” (p. 89). The ageing of academic staff is also a concern in South Africa (HESA 2011). Webbstock and Sehoole (2016) pointed out it is unlikely that there will be a sufficient number of academics to make up for the academics due to retire in the near future. As Table 5 shows, in 2016, 16,256 (i.e. 30%) of the total academic workforce of 55,053 are in the categories from 50 years upwards, meaning that they will retire within the next 10–15 years²⁵.

Table 5 Headcount of Academic Staff Members by Age Grouping

	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
< 30	10,912	12,164	13,002	13,053	10,661	11,846	11,945
30–39	11,364	12,029	12,168	12,861	12,892	13,506	13,880
40–49	10,950	11,592	11,773	12,012	12,051	12,813	12,972
50–59	8,890	9,370	9,456	9,289	9,417	9,929	10,115
>=60	4,463	4,828	5,174	5,356	5,470	5,980	6,141
Total	46,579	49,983	51,573	52,571	50,491	54,074	55,053

Source: CHE, 2018

Moreover, in terms of academic rank, professors and associate professors aged 55 and upwards comprised 51%, and 32% of South Africa’s permanent academic staff in 2015, respectively (Higher Education Management Information System [HEMIS], 2016). According to HESA (2011):

The most active researchers in the country are gradually ageing while not enough younger researchers and academics are being recruited and retained. Combined age and race data suggest that a serious crisis is looming. As the over 50 largely white and male cohort moves closer to retirement there is little evidence of a commensurate black and female cohort waiting in the wings and ready to emerge (p. 9).

Given this predicament, the sustainability of the academic profession will rely on attracting new recruits. However, a HESA report (2011) noted that “South African universities face a multidimensional crisis in attracting, appointing and retaining academic staff. Academia is not a particularly attractive career option due to relatively low salaries, expanding student numbers and consequent workloads, and institutional culture issues, among others” (p.1). While most of these issues are not unique to South Africa, the country faces exacerbating

²⁵ The current retirement age is between 60–65 years old in South Africa.

challenges in the higher education sector, including “the profound inequities and distortions of the system, incoherent and poor articulation between various types of higher education institutions, under-prepared students from poorly resourced socio-economic and academic contexts, unequal distribution of resources and subsidy amongst higher education institutions, declining state subsidy, and increased competition from international and private higher education institutions” (Rothmann & Barkhuizen, 2008, pp. 439–440). The cumulative effect of these challenges suggests that the academic profession is a troubled one, as the final section argues.

2.3.7. The South African Academic Profession

HESA (2011) reported that between 1987 and 1997, South Africa lost more than 41 000 skilled emigrants, of whom several were from the higher education sector. The report suggested that this phenomenon, referred to as the ‘brain drain’, based on social and political conditions, continues to result in the loss of academic talent. Since “academics constitute a highly sought after and mobile sector of society” (p. 8), they are able to find alternative employment in other countries and other sectors. Perhaps due in part to this, there is a shortage of academics in the South African higher education sector. Around ten years after democracy, having increased access to an unprecedented number of students, the South African government realised that the higher education system lacked capacity and would be unsustainable, so “the discourse of participation shifted to one of resource adequacy” (Webbstock & Schoole, 2016, p. 282). However, as these authors pointed out, at the same time the “discourse with respect to academic staffing shifted from members of an academy appointed into established posts, to human resources required for particular cost centres within the corporation of the university” (p.282). Thus, as has been the case globally, academics are being treated as employees, and their autonomy is being threatened by the influence of managerialism, increasing state governance, marketisation and accountability (Webbstock & Schoole, 2016). The shifting roles, identities and morale of academics, described in the first section that reviewed global trends in academia, is assumed equally relevant to academics in South Africa.

This has been borne out by Webster and Mosoetsa (2002), who surveyed South African academics from six diverse institutions across the country. These authors found that academics in South Africa were feeling “deep cynicism towards management’s intentions” (p. 12), their professional autonomy was being undermined, their status was reduced, and they

experienced “a strong sense of a loss of shared identity” (p. 14). Furthermore, in accordance with global trends, intense workload pressure was reported. In Webster and Mosoetsa’s (2002) study, workload pressure was largely attributed to: under-preparedness of students, the need for lecturers to redesign their courses to meet market demands, “greater pressure to publish in accredited journals”, and “devolution of administrative functions, while at the same time a decrease in support staff” (p. 14). All respondents mentioned that the length of their working week had increased. Related to this, the researchers cited the following response from one of their interviewees “We are being asked to do a number of jobs, and we do not have the capacity to do them all” (p. 18). While the authors found that some interviewees had responded innovatively to their challenges, they stated that “the growing demands placed on academics has created stress and low morale is widespread” (p.18). Barkhuizen and Rothmann (2005) noted that the plethora of different roles that academics are now responsible for, can cause role overload, which “is a salient stressor for the modern academic” (p.39). Work overload has also caused some South African academics to experience burnout, which is indicated by low energy, mental distance, and diminished professional efficacy (Rothmann & Barkhuizen, 2008). In another South African study, focusing on young higher education academics, Pienaar and Bester (2006) found the most serious career dilemmas included role overload, role conflict, financial remuneration, performance management and promotion, support for research and teaching, discrimination, and specific management matters. Webster and Mosoetsa (2002) found that the employment of contract staff, while required to alleviate the shortage of permanent academic staff, has introduced extra tension as well as resentment between staff.

Many academics are thinking of leaving (Barkhuizen et al., 2017; Theron et al., 2014; Webster & Mosoetsa, 2002), but attrition of current staff can be ill afforded. The CHE Task Team produced a series of financial and staffing scenarios to project the number of academic staff that would be required either to maintain the current staff-to-student ratio (albeit less than desirable), as well as to improve it marginally. Having studied these scenarios, Webbstock and Sehoole (2016) concluded the following:

These scenarios reflect that even modest growth would require a much larger academic staffing complement than is currently the case. Four to six thousand extra staff FTEs would need to be drawn from a pipeline that currently produces some 2 000 PhDs a year, and where growth is constrained by the current supervisory capacity which is already at full stretch. The levels of subsidy would be hard pressed to accommodate the increase needed

to maintain student to staff ratios and would be wholly insufficient to be able to facilitate a slightly better average student to staff ratio (p. 313).

This paints a concerning picture, especially given that the current academic staff are ageing, as discussed previously, and that the profession has become less attractive to younger academics (Altbach et al., 2009; Geber, 2009; HESA 2011; Webbstock & Sehoole, 2016). Webbstock and Sehoole (2016) further argued that an inability to attract young academics might be one of the biggest risks for what they termed the “reproducibility of the system” (p. 307). The authors suggested that the demands such as producing significant research output, obtaining a doctorate, and working long hours to earn a sufficient living, may deter prospective academics that are currently working on a part-time or temporary basis. Furthermore, as Geber (2009) remarked, “entry into a successful academic career is often an arduous process. From career preparation through to doctoral studies and beyond, the journey can be fraught with trials” (p. 674). Moreover, a HESA report (2011) pointed out that most universities have insufficient mentorship programmes aimed at young academics to provide guidance in terms of their prospective careers. Although the number of annual doctoral graduations increased from the low base of 823 in 2001 to 1 878 in 2012 (Simpson & Gevers, 2016), concerns have been raised regards to augmenting the pipeline of young academics. HESA (2011) noted a few key constraints related to increasing the number of South African doctoral graduates in the future. These constraints included limited infrastructure (such as facilities, equipment, and research infrastructure), limited supervision expertise (due to lack of eligibility to supervise PhDs as well as the necessary supervisory skills), and lack of funding for postgraduate students.

Academic salaries in South Africa and elsewhere do not help promote the profession either (Webbstock & Sehoole, 2016). It is known that academic salaries are seldom competitive when comparing them to “compensation for similarly educated professions outside of universities” (Altbach et al., 2009, p. 20). HESA (2014) conducted a comparative study on the salaries of academics in 2012 and reported the following:

The academic sector faces the challenge of attracting young graduates into a career in academia. At the time of making such choices, academic jobs pay less than comparable public sector jobs, and an academic career is probably perceived to be less well remunerated overall (p. 1).

On the other hand, the salaries for senior academics were found to generally compare favourably with the private sector, albeit that private sector bonuses could not be matched in academia (HESA 2014). Senior academics are also able to improve their income through

consulting and research, in addition to their satisfactory salaries. However, the academic trajectory is such that the current conditions make it difficult for junior staff to do what is required to achieve more senior positions (Geber, 2009; Webbstock & Schoole, 2016).

Another aspect that surfaces in South African universities is that of alienating institutional cultures. According to a HESA report (2011), “black academics tend to find themselves marginalised by the ‘whiteness’ of institutional environments and cultures and the hegemony in the centres of administrative and academic power (committees, disciplines, departments and faculties) of white academics and administrators” (p. 8). Universities South Africa (2015) wrote of the “frustrations of black staff wishing to find their place within an established order of social relations and power” and the “black academics, struggling with a sense of powerlessness, having to fit into an order requiring no dis-establishment” (p. 13). The authors wrote of a “sense of alienation” that has fueled “deep anger and resentment, itself acting on the back of a more general critique of the black intellectual and his/her social experiences since the transition to democratic rule: feelings of economic and social impotence” (p. 13). Furthermore HESA (2011) suggested that chauvinism still pervades many of the male-dominated academic universities, and that there exists a dearth of female role models for young academics. Institutional culture has thus not transformed adequately, adding to the challenges of a struggling profession.

Consequently, in summing up, it can be argued that despite its achievements in terms of research outputs and rankings, the South African academic profession is somewhat under threat. Academics in the system are generally overworked, current staff-to-student ratios are unacceptable, academic autonomy has diminished, and salaries for young academics are not attractive. Funding is severely constrained, as is the supervisory capacity needed to increase the PhD pipeline. Untransformed institutional cultures lead to feelings of alienation and disempowerment. Attrition of existing academic staff is likely to happen as professors start to retire, and others choose to leave. Whether resultant vacancies can be filled remains to be seen.

2.4. Conclusion

The literature revealed that both locally and globally, the higher education sector is in a state of flux, and tendencies toward massification, accountability, marketisation and privatisation have changed academic work irrevocably. While having a profound impact on the academic

profession, in terms of the roles, identities and morale of the academic, the literature suggested that this fallout is not being sufficiently addressed. Altbach et al. (2009) alluded to the relative lack of attention placed on what the authors considered the university's key resource, i.e. its academics, when they wrote:

The growing tension between enrolment demand, constrained budgets, and greater accountability has resulted in a discouraging environment for the academic profession worldwide.” These authors continued: “Neither an impressive campus nor an innovative curriculum will produce good results without great professors (p.89).

The quote above referred to “committed academic staff” as being critical to the success of a university. The commitment of academic staff is the focus of this thesis. Organisational commitment has been linked to improved job performance, retention, well-being (Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran, 2005; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer, 2009, 2016; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001) and several other positive work outcomes. While studies of affective commitment (AC) abound, there is a paucity of studies that explore AC of academics to their institutions, especially in South Africa. Understanding to what degree academics feel emotionally attached to their institutions provides a strong indication of their intention to stay or leave. Given the shortage of qualified academic staff, this is a critical consideration. Similarly, in view of the changing nature of higher education institutions, it is surprising that there have been few studies on academics' identification with their institutions. Organisational identification (OID) has also been strongly associated with employees' intention to stay or leave, in addition to other beneficial work outcomes such as job satisfaction, and extra- and in-role performance (Ashforth et al., 2008; Lee et al., 2015; Riketta, 2005; Van Dick, 2016; Van Knippenberg & Sleebos, 2006). Moreover, academics who feel strongly identified with their institution will always act in its best interest, since the institution forms part of their self-identity (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Dutton et al., 1994; Van Knippenberg & Van Schie, 2000).

Furthermore, this study set out to investigate the concurrent effects of perceptions of organisational support and of outsiders' views of their university, on South African academics' identification with, and commitment to, their institution. Perceived organisational support (POS) captures the feeling of being valued and cared for by the organisation (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986) and can therefore be considered a measure of internal “respect”, representing a type of status within the organisation (Tyler & Blader, 2003). POS was deemed a relevant antecedent to

investigate in the context of this study given the concerns that were discussed in this chapter regarding the academic workload, increased administrative duties, mounting pressure to publish research and the low staff to student ratio. Under these circumstances, it would seem helpful if academics believed their institutions were providing the necessary support to cope with these multiple, often conflicting demands. POS has been found to be an antecedent of both AC and OID and moreover, has recently been found to have a buffering effect between work engagement and negative workplace outcomes such as turnover intentions and deviant behaviour (Shantz, Alfes & Latham, 2016). While POS is construed as a form of internal status, this study also considered the influence on AC and OID of Perceived External Reputation (PER), representing a type of external status. In the context of this study, PER captures academics' perceptions of outsiders' views of their university. Based on the significance to academics of university-related prestige (Blackmore & Kandiko, 2011), PER was deemed an important variable to consider as an antecedent to both AC and OID. The relevance of perceptions of outsiders' views on their institution is underpinned by some of the issues that were discussed in this chapter: the recent student protests that caused worldwide media attention, the internationalisation of refereed journals and research grants, and the pressure on academics to appear marketable.

This concludes the chapter that provided context for this study. It discussed the higher education sector both globally and in South Africa, specifically focusing on the impact the recent, drastic changes have had on the academic profession and consequently, on the academic's work experience and working conditions. The next chapter discusses the literature review and presents the study's conceptual framework.

CHAPTER THREE

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

3.1. Introduction

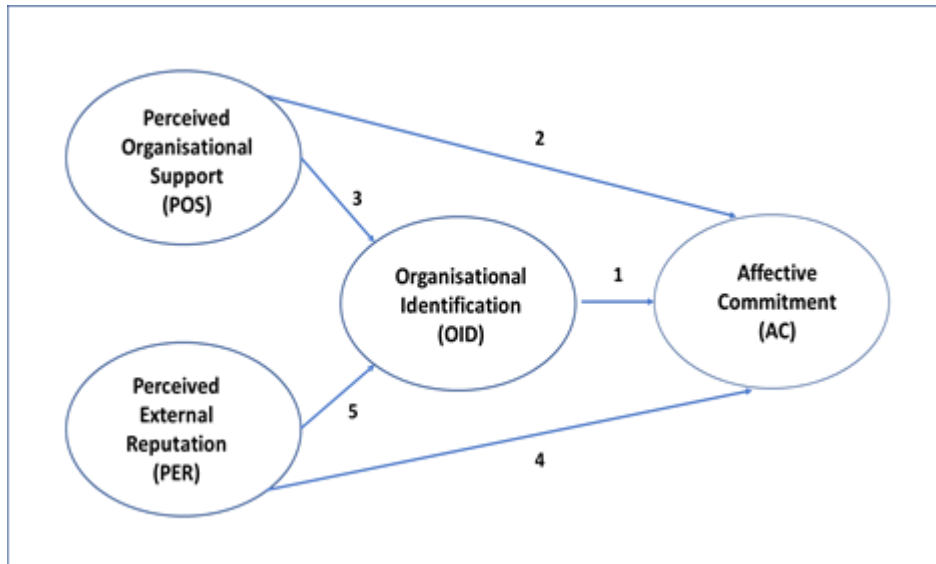
This study investigated the concurrent effects of perceived organisational support (POS) and perceived external reputation (PER) on both the organisational identification (OID) and affective commitment (AC) of academics at a South African university²⁶. Having established the higher education context in Chapter Two, this chapter focuses on the relevant literature that informed the conceptual framework of the study. Specifically, this alludes to a review of each of the four constructs, the interrelationships between them that were established previously, as well as their underlying theoretical frameworks. Empirical evidence from previous studies are reviewed, both generally, and in the context of academia.

The chapter is structured in accordance with the formulation of the hypotheses. Each of the four constructs is discussed in turn, highlighting their theoretical underpinnings in terms of definitions, conceptualisations, mechanisms, outcomes and antecedents. Flowing from these discussions, the rationale for the development of each hypothesis in turn, is provided. Firstly, AC, the ultimate dependent variable in this study, is explored, including background on the broader concept of organisational commitment. Next, OID is discussed, and its proposed relationship with AC culminates in the first of seven hypotheses. Thereafter, POS, one of the independent variables, is reviewed, and subsequently three hypotheses involving this construct are formulated. Finally, PER, another independent variable, is introduced, with background provided on the broader construct of “reputation”, before discussing the three hypotheses involving PER.

Figure 2 displays the final conceptual model that was tested. The model provides a roadmap to show the five stages of the hypotheses development.

²⁶ The full names of the four constructs, together with their acronyms, will be repeated once in each new chapter for the sake of readability and completeness.

Figure 2 Conceptual Model of the Linkages between the Constructs



The numbers associated with the arrows correspond to each relationship that will be explained in order of the developmental stages. However, prior to discussing the respective relationships, the relevant constructs will be reviewed in turn. The first of these is that of AC.

3.2. Affective Commitment

This section defines AC, and then provides background that elaborates on organisational/employee commitment in general: how it is defined, its outcomes and how it is developed. Thereafter the rationale regarding the selection of AC as the variable of interest is provided, and some of its pertinent antecedents are introduced.

3.2.1. Defining Affective Commitment

AC is the key dependent variable in this study. Wherever the term AC appears in this thesis, it refers to affective *organisational* commitment, i.e. the target of the employee's affective commitment is the organisation, as opposed to other foci (such as the work-team, line manager, or occupation). Given the context of academia, this means that AC refers to the academic's AC to the university or institution, rather than to a department, head of department, or the profession, for example.

AC is defined as “identification with, involvement in, and emotional attachment to the organization” (Allen & Meyer, 1996, p. 253). This definition has been adopted to describe AC in this study. AC implies an affective bond with the organisation that leads to outcomes that contribute meaningfully to its success. However, AC falls under the umbrella concept of

“organisational commitment” (OC). AC is one of three components or “mind-sets” that constitute OC, according to Meyer and Allen’s Three-component Model (TCM, 1990; 1991, 1993, 1997). TCM is the most prolific categorisation of the different forms of organisational commitment (Klein, Molloy, & Cooper, 2009). Before explaining how the AC mind-set differs from others, the review will first discuss the broader concept of OC as necessary background.

3.2.2. Organisational Commitment

Since AC is one of three mind-sets that make up OC, this section firstly defines the OC construct, describes its outcomes, how it is developed, and finally explains the TCM conceptualisation of OC.

OC has been argued to be the most frequently studied phenomenon in the field of organisational behaviour (Klein, Molloy, et al., 2009). Sometimes referred to as “workplace commitment” or “employee commitment”, it has been studied for over five decades. Numerous empirical studies focused initially on commitment to the organisation, but subsequently also considered commitment to various workplace foci or targets other than the organisation (Becker, Eveleth, Billings, & Gilbert, 1996; Meyer, 2016; Meyer, Becker, & Van Dick, 2006; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Riketta & van Dick, 2005). Appendix E provides a summary of the seminal publication titles from influential OC theorists, whose cumulative contributions since the early 1960s have shaped the evolution of research in this field, and our understanding of the OC construct.

There have been several definitions of OC over the years. Having comprehensively reviewed the extant body of literature on the topic, Klein, Molloy, and Cooper (2009) concluded that significant confusion still exists in terms of its conceptualisation. One of the most frequently cited definitions, however, came from Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982). These authors proposed that OC reflected “the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organization”, and was characterised by “the degree to which a person has strong belief in, and acceptance of the organization’s goals and values, a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization, and a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization” (p. 27). This is deemed to be the most appropriate definition of OC in the context of this study.

3.2.3. Organisational Commitment Outcomes

OC is widely acknowledged to have significant implications for individuals themselves, as well as for their workplace. Across the disciplines of organisational behaviour, management, and organisational psychology, OC has been recognised as a construct that plays a unique role in understanding and predicting work behaviour (Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran, 2005; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer, 2009, 2016; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001), encompassing affective, cognitive and behavioural outcomes that are likely to impact on job performance²⁷ (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Becker et al., 1996; Meyer & Allen, 1991, 1997; Meyer, Becker, & Vandenberghe, 2004) and organisational effectiveness (Becker et al., 2009; Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran, 2005; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

The changing nature of the modern workplace has seen long-term commitments dwindling in favour of more transitory and more transactional employee-organisation relationships (Becker et al., 2009; Klein, 2013). Notwithstanding this trend, and despite its long research history, employee commitment continues to be of great interest and importance to organisational behaviour scholars and practitioners. Organisations aim to nurture employee commitment to diminish absenteeism and (voluntary) turnover (Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran, 2005; Gellatly & Hedberg, 2016; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991b, 1997, J. P. Meyer et al., 1993, 2006; Morrow, 1983; Mowday et al., 1982; Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974), and improve job satisfaction (Klein & Brinsfield, 2016; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991b, 1997; Meyer et al., 1993; Morrow, 1983; Mowday et al., 1982; Porter et al., 1974). There are numerous other important beneficial outcomes found to be related to OC such as motivation (Battistelli, Galletta, Portoghese, Pohl, & Odoardi, 2013; Gagné & Howard, 2016; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; J. P. Meyer et al., 2004) (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 2004), increase in prosocial behaviours (Klein et al., 2009; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990), employee well-being (Chris, Maltin, & Meyer, 2016; Klein & Brinsfield, 2016; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer & Maltin, 2010), and avoidance of counterproductive work behaviours (Becker et al., 2009; Marcus, 2016). These beneficial outcomes are as important for academics and their employing institutions in the higher education sector, as they are for employees and companies in the private sector. In terms of empirical studies in higher education, Nyquist et al.'s (2000) meta-analysis found that OC influenced the job satisfaction of medical faculty. An Indonesian study found a strong positive relationship between OC and

²⁷ While commitment has often been linked to improved employee performance, results have been inconsistent and to varying degrees (Meyer & Allen, 2004).

job performance (Haryono & Arafat, 2017) in full-time faculty. In Malaysia, Lew (2009) found that AC was strongly negatively related to the turnover intention of university faculty, and fully mediated the relationship between POS and turnover intention. Similarly, in South Africa, Mensele and Coetzee (2014) found that OC positively affected faculty members' intention to stay at their university.

However, it needs to be acknowledged that there are potentially negative consequences for both the organisation and employees when employees are very highly committed. Some examples include lack of innovation, where employees 'blindly' accept the organisational status quo (Meyer & Allen, 1997), or behave unethically to advance organisational goals (Randall, 1987). However, in the current state of academia, overly high commitment may result in increased levels of stress or anxiety (Klein, Wesson, Hollenbeck, & Alge, 1999) and/or burnout (Meng et al., 2017; Rothmann & Barkhuizen, 2008) in academics constantly striving to achieve research goals. Nonetheless, despite these risks, the extensive ongoing research on organisational and other foci of employee commitment indicate that it is still considered relevant for achieving desirable workplace outcomes.

3.2.4. How Employee Commitment Develops: A Social Exchange Theory Lens

A long-standing differentiation has been made between behavioural commitment and attitudinal commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Behavioural commitment refers to the "process by which individuals become locked into a certain organization and how they deal with this problem" (Mowday et al., 1982, p. 26). Here the focus is on commitment-related actions and behaviours (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979) and this perspective sees individuals as being committed to a specific course of action. Any attitude or behaviour that emerges from this would be considered a result of the former (behavioural) commitment. For example, if the course of action is to stay with the organisation, some individuals may develop a positive perspective of the organisation to feel that their choice to stay was self-directed (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972) defined a form of behavioural commitment called "calculative commitment" that arises when employees stay committed to an organisation because of "side bets". These side bets refer to the cost of leaving the organisation in terms of money or benefits that they would have to forego (Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran, 2005).

On the other hand, attitudinal commitment "represents a state in which an individual identifies with a particular organization and its goals and wishes to maintain membership in order to

facilitate these goals” (Mowday et al., 1979, p. 225). Attitudinal commitment is therefore a reflection of the level of involvement that employees have with their organisation (Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran, 2005; Porter et al., 1974). According to Mowday et al. (1982), this is usually based on the exchange relationship²⁸ encompassed by social exchange theory (SET, Mowday et al., 1982), a theory that “defines the employment relationship as an exchange process between an employer and an employee (Guerrero & Herrbach, 2009, p. 1538). SET was based on the contributions of Gouldner (1960) and Blau (1964). Gouldner proposed that a sense of felt obligation gives rise to the reciprocity of valued resources in social relationships (known as “the norm of reciprocity”). Blau further argued that social exchange is based on favours that — due to the development of trust over time — elicit future obligation from the recipient. Thus, while both economic and social exchange entail the exchange of economic resources, social exchange also includes socio-emotional resources (Shore, Coyle-Shapiro, Chen, & Tetrick, 2009). Typically long-term in nature, these social exchange relationships involve the exchange of both tangible resources, as well as intangible resources such as commitment and trust (Shore et al., 2009). When employees recognise that the organisation is supporting them, they develop a sense of felt obligation, and respond by indicating stronger commitment (Guerrero & Herrbach, 2009) — thereby avoiding the stigma of violating the norm of reciprocity (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001).

Although commitment theorists have debated the relative dominance of attitudinal versus behavioural approaches over the years, it is now widely accepted that the two are related and reciprocal over time, i.e. either behaviour influences commitment, which in turn results in perpetuating the behaviour, or commitment influences behaviour, which in turn strengthens commitment (Klein et al., 2009; Mowday et al., 1982). Summing this up, attitudinal commitment usually results in certain behaviours, while behavioural commitment leads to the development of specific attitudes.

3.2.5. The Three-Component Model

3.2.5.1. Conceptualisation

Combining the behavioural and attitudinal perspectives, OC can be viewed as a psychological state that can develop either retrospectively to justify a chosen course of action, or because of perceiving work conditions in a positive light (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Meyer and Allen’s

²⁸ The notion of exchange is also applicable to the behavioural approach, since behaviour is often motivated by an expectation of something in return for it.

multidimensional TCM, took this approach, and represented a breakthrough in the commitment literature. To some extent, this conceptualisation synthesised the perspectives on calculative and affective commitment provided by some of the earlier commitment theorists. According to the TCM, OC consists of three components or mind-sets, namely AC, “continuance commitment” (CC) and “normative commitment” (NC). AC refers to an emotional bond between the individual and the organisation, and the *desire* to continue the relationship; CC refers to the *need* to stay with an organisation after weighing up the perceived costs and benefits associated with leaving; while NC refers to a sense of moral *obligation* to stay with the organisation. Each of the components are purported to develop from different antecedents, and to have different job-related outcomes. It should also be noted that the three components are not mutually exclusive, and employees can experience all three mind-sets to varying degrees (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Commitment profiles that reflect the degree of all three components of an individual’s commitment to the organisation, respectively, can be computed (Allen, 2016; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Meyer, Stanley, & Parfyonova, 2012).

Meyer and Allen (1991a, 1997) produced measurement scales for each commitment mind-set that have been well-validated and widely accepted. These three instruments, (i.e. scales for AC, CC, and NC, respectively), are still frequently used today in studies that measure OC²⁹. Furthermore, these organisational commitment scales have also been adapted for use with workplace commitment foci other than the organisation. The TCM scale corresponding to AC has been adopted in this study to measure the academic’s AC to the institution being researched.

3.2.5.2. Critique of the Three-Component Model

Given the continued significance and widespread use of the TCM in the study of workplace commitment, it is necessary to interject at this point to mention that the model has attracted a fair amount of criticism over the years. For example, in terms of construct validity, a substantial overlap has been found in the respective linkages of AC and NC in terms of antecedents and outcomes (Jaros, 1997). It has also been argued that TCM would be better positioned as a model to predict turnover — rather than positioned as a generalised model of commitment — since AC, CC and NC are not components of the same attitudinal

²⁹ The scale developed earlier by Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979), referred to as the ‘organisational commitment questionnaire’ (OCQ), is an alternate instrument for measuring OC and is also still widely used today.

phenomenon (Solinger, Van Olffen, & Roe, 2008). Similarly, it has been argued that the different TCM mind-sets correspond to different psychological bonds or attachments that individuals form with the organisation. “Commitment” is but one of these bond types, and the different TCM mind-sets should therefore not all be subsumed under the construct of commitment (Klein, 2014; Klein, Molloy, & Brinsfield, 2012). Klein et al. (2012) argued for a reconceptualisation of OC that would not be confounded by antecedents such as identification, and outcomes such as turnover, and that would be ‘more consistently applicable across workplace targets’ (p. 131). Summing up, the argument for a unidimensional approach to organisational commitment can be captured by the need for parsimony, consistency and avoiding the effect of confounds (Klein & Park, 2016).

Notwithstanding the critique of the TCM and the proposal of a unidimensional conceptualisation of OC, numerous contemporary commitment studies continue to utilise the TCM conceptual framework. It is particularly useful when comparing results of new research with previous research. This study has utilised the TCM approach, specifically focusing on one of the three mind-sets, namely AC. The next section offers an explanation regarding the selection of this component.

3.2.6. Why Affective Commitment Matters

A recent meta-analysis and synthesis of the prevailing commitment literature identified AC as the essence of OC, being an “enduring, indispensable, and central characteristic” (Mercurio, 2015, p. 393). As Klein and Brinsfield (2016) pointed out, AC has attracted the most attention from researchers compared with the other two TCM mind-sets, i.e. CC and NC. All three are negatively related to turnover intention. Retention is a key concern in the South African higher education sector (Webbstock & Sehoole, 2016; Webster & Mosoetsa, 2002), hence turnover intention is important in this context. However, aside from this common outcome, the three components have some different work-related outcomes due to their divergent psychological foundations (Meyer & Allen, 1997). AC has the strongest and most consistent associations with desirable outcomes of the three mind-sets (Becker et al., 2009; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer & Maltin, 2010; Meyer et al., 2002). Specifically, in their meta-analysis, Meyer et al. (2002) found that while all three commitment mind-sets were negatively related to intentional turnover, AC had the strongest and most positive correlations with performance, attendance, and organisational citizenship behaviour. To a lesser degree, NC was also related to these desirable outcomes, however, CC was found unrelated, or even related in the opposite

direction, to these consequences. In their study of academics in Turkey, Alniacik et al. (2011) reported that academics “with strong affective commitment would be motivated to higher levels of performance and make more meaningful contributions than employees who expressed continuance or normative commitment” (p. 1179). Given academics’ critical role, their level of performance largely determines the quality of the student’s university experience (Lew, 2009).

Although the debate regarding the causality and directional influence between AC and job satisfaction remains unsettled, the relationship is viewed as largely reciprocal (Klein & Brinsfield, 2016). Significantly, job satisfaction was found to have the strongest correlation with AC, as opposed to the other two mind-sets (Meyer et al., 2002). Furthermore, Battistelli, Galletta, Portoghese, and Vandenberghe (2013) found AC, rather than the other two mind-sets, to be strongly related to autonomous or self-determined forms of motivation. These forms of motivation are more likely to promote positive discretionary work behaviour (Deci & Ryan, 2000). The job satisfaction and motivation of academics are likely to affect the quality of the higher education learning experience for students (Capelleras, 2005). Since there is a strong relationship between job satisfaction, motivation, and AC, there is thus a strong argument for nurturing the AC of university faculty to their institution. The implications for higher education institutions would be detrimental if their academics were thinking about leaving their jobs (i.e. turnover intention), under-performing, and not displaying positive organisational citizenship behaviour in the way they treat their colleagues, to mention a few of the outcomes strongly associated with this form of commitment.

A study at a Malaysian university revealed that AC significantly predicted knowledge-sharing among its academics (Goh & Sandhu, 2013). Also in Malaysia, Lew (2009) found that AC was strongly related to the turnover intention of university faculty, and fully mediated the relationship between perceived organisational support and turnover intention.

In summing up, the beneficial outcome variables discussed above would not be similarly related to the other commitment mind-sets, where employees are committed through a feeling of obligation (as in the case of NC), or because the costs of leaving are too high (as in the case of CC). AC means that employees stay because they want to (Meyer & Allen, 1991, 1997). Certainly, given the key role of academics at universities, it would seem important to have lecturers and researchers stay at the institution because they want to. In this case, research

suggests it would be more likely that they experience job satisfaction, are more motivated, and perform better at their jobs.

3.2.7. Antecedents of Affective Commitment

Antecedents of AC are numerous and have been studied for decades (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Mowday et al., 1982). Meyer and Allen (1997) grouped the wide range of antecedents that had been tested over the years into three categories, namely “organisational characteristics”, “person characteristics” and “work experiences”. The first category, organisational characteristics, includes organisational structure, organisational policies and organisational justice. The authors pointed out that the relationships of these variables with AC were found to be inconsistent and weak. They speculated that employees’ attitudes are more influenced by their daily work experiences than they are by the macro-level variables that are less tangible. Person characteristics include demographic variables, such as age and gender, and dispositional variables, such as personality and values. Here, results from studies testing the influence of demographics and dispositional variables on AC were mixed, although, by and large, most were found to be strongly or consistently related in previous studies (Meyer & Allen, 1997). However, Meyer and Allen (1997) found that the final category, namely that of work experiences, was most strongly and consistently related to AC. Work experiences include job challenge, degree of autonomy, role characteristics and being treated with consideration. Work experiences promote AC through fulfilling employees’ need to enhance their self-worth and self-esteem (Stinglhamber et al., 2015). In higher education, work experiences such as job challenge and role has been undesirably affected by an increasing administrative workload (Tight, 2010) and autonomy is being diminished (Clegg, 2008; Smeenk et al., 2006). “Perceived organisational support” (POS) is a concept related to work experience. Perceptions of support would reflect certain aspects of academics’ work experience and an evaluation of their own status within the institution (Fuller et al, 2006b). POS is one of the potential antecedents of AC that is investigated in this study. OID is another job attitude that has been found to be a driver of AC and has also been studied extensively in relation to other job attitudes and important outcomes. This concept and its relationship with AC will be discussed next.

3.3. Organisational Identification

This section defines OID, discusses why it matters, how it is developed, and then explores its relationship with AC. Finally, this section introduces two specific antecedents of OID, of interest in this study.

3.3.1. Defining Organisational Identification

While the psychological relationship between employers and employees has been studied extensively in applied psychology and organisational behaviour in the form of OC, it has also been studied independently, and extensively, in social psychology. In the latter case, this relationship has commonly been conceptualised in terms of OID (Marique & Stinglhamber, 2011; Riketta, 2005). According to social identity theory, social identification is defined as “a perception of oneness with or belongingness to some human aggregate” (Ashforth & Mael, 1989, p. 21). Further, when an individual identifies with a social group, “he/she perceives him or herself as psychologically intertwined with the fate of the group” (Mael & Ashforth, 1992, p. 104). When the social group takes on the form of an organisation, this type of identification is known as OID. This definition implies that employees may experience a sense of oneness with the organisation because of their organisational membership. While the definition based on this awareness of organisational membership constitutes the cognitive component of OID, there is also an evaluative and affective component involved. The evaluative component connotes value to the membership, while the affective component brings an emotional investment (Ashforth et al., 2008). This hints at the close relationship between OID and AC to be discussed later in this section. Dutton, Dukerich and Harquail (1994) offered an alternative cognitive perspective. Their view of OID compares the employee’s notion of what is distinctive, central, and enduring (Albert & Whetten, 1985) about the organisation (defined as “perceived organisational identity”) with the employee’s beliefs about themselves and their own attributes (defined as their self-concept). They argued that when an employee’s self-concept matches the attributes in the perceived organisational identity, it results in a cognitive attachment which they consider to be OID. The authors therefore defined OID as “the degree to which a member defines him- or herself by the same attributes that he or she believes define the organization” (p. 239).

However, the integration of the organisation (or in the case of universities, the institution) into the individual’s sense of self-identity, i.e. the sense of oneness with the organisation or institution, is the definition deemed to be relevant to this study.

3.3.2. Why Organisational Identification Matters

OID is recognised as a crucial concept in organisational behaviour studies (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Not unlike commitment, OID has been viewed as a significant psychological state, which reflects an essential connection between the individual and the organisation. As with OC, therefore, this connection has the propensity to explain and predict important attitudes and behaviours at the individual, group, and organisational levels in the workplace (Bartels, 2006; Edwards, 2005; Hogg & Terry, 2000; Kreiner & Ashforth, 2004; Riketta, 2005). Importantly, the stronger the OID, the more likely employees are to expend effort on its behalf, and to ensure the organisation's best interest (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Dutton et al., 1994; Van Knippenberg & Van Schie, 2000). Similarly, when there is strong identification with the organisation, the employee's turnover intention will decrease to avoid the "psychic loss" entailed in leaving (Mael & Ashforth, 1992). Empirical evidence has therefore found OID to be negatively related to turnover intention, and positively related to OC, job satisfaction, and extra- and in-role performance, among others (Ashforth et al., 2008; Lee et al., 2015; Riketta, 2005; Van Dick, 2016; Van Knippenberg & Sleebos, 2006). Extra- and in-role performance can be argued to be exceptionally important in the case of academics. Christ, et al. (2003) found that OID influenced German school teachers' extra-role behaviours. The authors emphasised the importance of extra-role behaviours in the teaching profession and asserted that it was critical that teachers were willing to provide additional resources, given that they do not receive many extrinsic rewards. A similar rationale could be applied to the case of universities. This would be especially true in South Africa, where many previously disadvantaged students require additional support and tutoring (Rothmann & Jordaan, 2006).

The theoretical framework referred to as the social identity approach (SIA), explains the underlying mechanisms through which OID is formed and how it interacts with its correlates. The next section describes how OID is developed according to the SIA, comprising "social identity theory" and "self-categorisation theory".

3.3.3. How Organisational Identification Develops: A Social Identity Theory Lens

The SIA deals with the social psychology of group processes, encompassing processes of self-categorisation and self-enhancement (Abrams & Hogg, 1990). Social identity theory (SIT, Tajfel, 1978; Tajfel & Turner, 1979) provides the foundation for this approach, followed

closely by self-categorisation theory (SCT, Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, & Wetherell, 1987).

SIT focuses on how intergroup relations are influenced by the social context in which they take place (Hornsey, 2008). It posits that people identify themselves and others with various social groups, seeing themselves as members of religious affiliations, organisations, and age or gender cohorts, for example. This affiliation provides them with a social identity that forms part of their overall identity. Importantly, Ashforth and Mael (1989) asserted that the extent to which a person identifies with a social category is not an ‘all or nothing’ occurrence, but rather a matter of degree. This would be influenced by the degree to which the identity enhances the individual’s self-image. The authors described social identification as a “perceptual cognitive construct not necessarily associated with any behaviors or affective states” (p. 21). In their view, identification does not require effort to be exerted by the individual towards the relevant group’s goals, but merely that the individual has a sense of being ‘psychologically intertwined’ with the group’s outcome. However, this leads to feeling personally affected by both successes and failures of the group. Furthermore, identification with a group does not entail acceptance of the group’s values and attitudes, notwithstanding that a group generally is associated with certain norms, values and attitudes. In the same way as some individuals identify with people as social referents, for example, sport stars, the ‘persona’ being identified with becomes an integral part of one’s self-definition.

SIT can be applied in the context of organisations or institutions, and to the employee-organisation relationship (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Dutton et al., 1994; He, Pham, Baruch, & Zhu, 2014; Hogg & Terry, 2000). Since the organisation can provide a partial answer to the employee’s “Who am I” question, the authors argued that OID can be considered a particular type of social identification (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). An organisation or institution “can become a focal and salient social category with which employees can identify” (He et al., 2014, p. 4). When an employee’s identity as an organisational member becomes salient to his/her self-definition, and in addition, when the individual’s self-concept comprises attributes that coincide with his/her perception of the organisation or institution’s identity, OID is likely to develop (He et al., 2014).

A central concept in SIT is that of belonging to a psychological ‘in-group’ (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Hogg & Terry, 2000), which is helpful in explaining certain intergroup conflict behaviours. ‘In-group favouritism’ can occur even when good leadership is lacking, and

beyond interpersonal relationships, i.e. when there is no interaction, interdependency or cohesion between members. Yet this identification can have a profound impact on emotions and behaviour, for example, loyalty to the group or organisation. SIT has predictive value since it posits that a) people attempt to enhance their self-esteem; b) social identity through belonging to a group, forms part of an individual's self-concept; and c) people attempt to ensure a positive social identity through positively distinguishing their in-group from relevant out-groups (Van Dick, 2016). In the case of university faculty, this would mean that the self-esteem of academics could be enhanced through their membership of their employing institution; that the university for which they work forms part of academics' self-concept; and that academics would strive to ensure that their institution is favourably differentiated from similar institutions. Hence, through these underlying motivations, the power of OID as a predictor of positive outcomes in higher education institutions can be better understood.

The second component of the SIA, contributing to our understanding of the way OID is developed, is that of SCT (Turner et al., 1987). SCT represents a refinement of the cognitive element of SIT, transcending the intergroup focus of SIT by explaining intragroup processes as well (Hornsey, 2008). It especially considers contextual influences on identification (Van Dick, 2016). SCT reflects on group categorisation processes and suggests three levels of self-categorisation, namely the superordinate category of the self as human being, the intermediate level of the self as a member of a specific group, and the subordinate level of self as an individual (Turner et al., 1987). The salience of the category for the individual, as well as the extent to which the category is relevant, determine the advent of self-categorisation. If self-categorisation is established on the basis of the intermediate level, the salience of group membership would increase and be of greater relevance than the individual's personal identity (Van Dick, 2016). This is applicable to our understanding of organisational psychology since the organisation is likely to be a salient social category with which individuals can develop identification (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Hogg & Terry, 2000). However, the organisation itself is not necessarily the only focus of identification within the organisation. In their study of German school teachers, Christ et al. (2003) argued that the teachers' identification with the organisation, work team, and/or career, respectively, can be related to the SCT levels of abstraction. Career identification can be associated with the personal level of categorisation, whereas the other two are both aligned with the "group level" of identification. This has implications in terms of differential positive outcomes of the different identification foci. In this case, the authors found that the different foci had different relative strengths of association with organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). For example, higher career

identification fostered OCB towards the teachers' own qualification, rather than towards the organisation. This rationale would arguably apply to university faculty too, since the literature suggests that academics usually have a strong identification with their career, profession or discipline (Blackmore & Kandiko, 2011; Taylor, 1999). Therefore, if academics' identification is mostly with their own career, it is likely that they will focus on behaviours that promote their individual proficiencies. Alternatively, if academics are highly identified with their institution, one could expect that they would demonstrate high levels of some form of OCB towards the institution (Christ et al., 2003).

In conclusion, according to the SIA (i.e. SIT and SCT), OID in academics would be developed if a) the academic identifies with the institution; b) if identification with the institution is deemed salient to the academic; and c) the institution is deemed to be the most salient or relevant level of abstraction with which to self-categorise. The next section discusses relevant antecedents of OID.

3.3.4. Antecedents of Organisational Identification

SIT, and theories on group identification processes, has traditionally guided most of the studies on OID's antecedents (Fuller et al, 2006a). According to Ashforth and Mael (1989), the tendency of individuals to identify with groups depends firstly on "distinctiveness of the group's values and practices in relation to those of comparable groups" (p. 24). Even distinctions based on negative values (e.g. in groups associated with countercultures), have led to increased identification with a group. Secondly, the authors identified the group's prestige as being a factor — related to distinctiveness — that influences the formation of group identification. They based this on the rationale that social identification affects self-esteem through intergroup comparison (Ashforth & Mael, 1989).

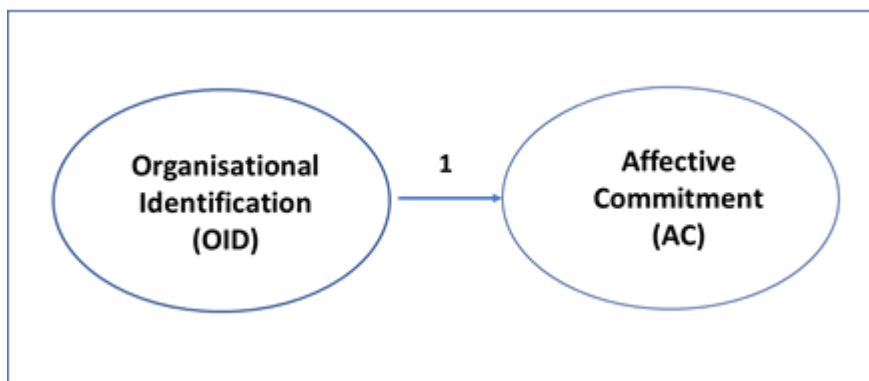
Riketta's (2005) meta-analysis of correlates of OID (which may be either antecedents or consequences) found organisational prestige to be strongly positively related to OID. Prestige is relevant to university life (Blackmore & Kandiko, 2011) and there are several international ranking systems (e.g. Quacquarelli Symonds World University Rankings) that evaluate and compare the worlds' universities. These types of rankings would naturally bring prestige to the institutions that fare well. This may, in turn, effect academics' perceptions of their institutions, relative to others, and could therefore impact on their formation of OID.

There are other concepts that are deemed to be closely related to prestige, for example, “construed external image”, “perceived external prestige” (PEP), and “perceived external reputation” (PER), in that they might influence the development of OID in the same way that prestige does. These concepts refer to the way that employees, or insiders, view the prestige or reputation of their institution. PER is one of two independent variables, proposed to be related to both OID and AC, in this study’s conceptual model. The other one is POS. Both concepts, i.e. POS and PER, will be reviewed later in this chapter, together with a discussion of their relationships with OID and AC, respectively. However, preceding this, the next section discusses the relationship between OID and AC.

3.3.5. Organisational Identification and Affective Commitment

The first relationship that was developed in building the conceptual framework is the relationship between OID and AC, as shown in Figure 3 below.

Figure 3 Organisational Identification and Affective Commitment



OID and AC were both developed as ways to conceptualise the psychological relationship between the individual and the organisation (Van Knippenberg & Sleebos, 2006). OID is generally viewed as a cognitive construct, whereas AC includes a strong emotional component (Riketta, 2005). However, the fundamental distinction between OID and AC is related to the employee’s sense of identity. With AC, the individual is emotionally attached to the organisation yet they remain discrete entities (Lee et al., 2015; Van Dick, 2016; Van Knippenberg & Sleebos, 2006). On the other hand, in the case of OID, the individual has the perception of “oneness” with the organisation, implicating his/her self-concept (Ashforth, Harrison, & Corley, 2008). Secondly, the idea of salience, emanating from SCT, helps to explain why OID can have greater or lesser relevance when predicting employee behaviours and attitudes. This phenomenon is not explained in the commitment research (Van Dick, 2016).

Conceptually, OID is closely related to OC as defined and measured by Mowday, Porter and Steers (1979), and to AC as defined and measured by Meyer and Allen (1997). According to Riketta (2005) some authors have even posited that the concepts can be used interchangeably. Carmeli (2005) asserted that “researchers that took affective orientation to define commitment or attachment viewed employees who were highly committed as being strongly identified with a particular organization or group” (p. 446). While Carmeli (2005) argued that OID and AC should not be seen as distinct concepts, and that AC is a ‘component’ of OID, others have argued that AC is a broader or vaguer construct than OID (Van Dick, 2004).

However, despite concerns about the similarity of the two concepts, theoretical and empirical studies have found them to be distinct constructs (Riketta, 2005; Stinglhamber et al., 2015; Van Knippenberg & Sleebos, 2006). Riketta’s (2005) meta-analysis on the correlates of OID, simultaneously compared results of those correlates with “attitudinal commitment” (AOC). AOC included measures from Mowday, Steers and Porter’s (1979) OCQ, together with elements from Meyer and Allen’s (1990) AC scale. Therefore, it is assumed that AOC represents AC. OID was operationalised by its two most common measures, the Mael measure (Mael & Tetrick, 1992) and the Organizational Identification Questionnaire scale (Cheney, 1983). Notwithstanding the different measures used, the study concluded that OID has unique features compared with AC. Riketta’s correlation analysis revealed that the two constructs had some differential predictive value (Van Dick, 2016), and furthermore, that OID may even prove more predictive of certain work behaviours than AC.

Treating OID and AC as distinct concepts, researchers have been interested in how the two constructs are related. Ashforth and Mael (1989) theorised that “identification with an organization enhances support for and commitment to it” (p. 26). Meyer & Herscovitch (2001) proposed that “identity relevance” is one of three bases that influences AC, the other two being “shared values” and “personal involvement” (with the organisation). Identity relevance suggests that to the extent that the employee deems identification with the organisation to be salient, AC will be developed accordingly. Meyer et al. (2006) argued that an employee’s self-categorisation as an organisational member signifies a necessary step to develop an emotional attachment toward the organisation. It is therefore suggested that identification with a group or organisation fosters the development of attitudes toward the organisation, including that of AC (Meyer et al., 2004).

Although empirical evidence on the relationship between OID and AC has been inconsistent, it has mostly been found to be strongly correlated (Riketta & Van Dick, 2005). Overall, sufficient empirical evidence suggests that OID predicts AC (Carmeli, Gilat, & Weisberg, 2006; Klein et al., 2012; Ngo, Loi, Foley, Zheng, & Zhang, 2013; Podnar, 2011; Podnar & Golob, 2015; Riketta, 2005; Stinglhamber et al., 2015; Van Dick, Becker, & Meyer, 2006; W. Lam & Liu, 2014). Recently, using a cross-lagged panel design in the context of a Belgian federal public service organisation, Stinglhamber et al. (2015) found that OID predicted AC, whereas AC did not predict OID. Therefore, OID was indeed found to be an antecedent of AC. Since identification is generally seen as a cognitive construct that contributes towards self-definition (Ashforth & Mael, 1989), Stinglhamber et al. (2015) posited that OID is likely to benefit employees to the degree that it helps them maintain a positive self-concept, thereby reinforcing the AC toward the organisation. This results in the first hypothesis of this study:

H1: Organisational identification is positively related to affective commitment.

In the context of higher education, this hypothesis suggests that if academics become more identified with the institution they work for, it is likely that their emotional attachment to the institution will grow accordingly. This concludes the section on OID. Having defined OID, discussed why it matters, how it is developed, its relevant antecedents and its relationship with AC, the next section discusses POS, the first of the two proposed antecedents of both OID and AC.

3.4. Perceived Organisational Support

This section defines POS, discusses why it matters, how it drives positive work outcomes, and considers some of its antecedents. Thereafter, it discusses the relationships that POS has with both AC and OID, as well as the indirect relationship between POS and AC where OID is the mediator variable.

3.4.1. Defining Perceived Organisational Support

One of the ways that AC is developed, is when employees' work experiences reflect that the organisation supports them, deals with them in a fair manner, and values their contributions, thereby boosting their feelings of competence and personal importance (Meyer & Allen, 1997). POS is a construct that captures the feeling of being cared for and valued by the organisation (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986). The definition "employees' global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values their

contributions and cares about their well-being” (Eisenberger et al., 1986, p. 501) is the one that has been adopted in this study. It should be noted here that POS is developed because employees tend to assign anthropomorphic characteristics to the organisation. Based on this personification, employees decide whether the organisation is treating them favourably or not (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Exchange quality can be defined as the degree to which a relationship between two exchange partners is characterised by mutual respect, trust, and obligation. POS represents the most common method of encapsulating the mediating role of social exchange relationships with positive work outcomes (Colquitt, Baer, Long, & Halvorsen-Ganepola, 2014). The concept of POS (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Rhoades, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 2001), derived from SET, is often used to measure employees’ perceptions of what the organisation is providing in return for their commitment (Guerrero & Herrbach, 2009). Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison and Sowa (1986) provided evidence supporting the SET view that employees’ commitment to their organisation is largely influenced by how they perceive their organisation’s commitment to them. POS signals the organisation’s readiness to reward employees’ increased work efforts and provide the assistance necessary to do their jobs effectively (Ngo et al., 2013). In the case of academics, this might take the form of providing job resources, for example, a form of support found to be important to faculty in a South African university (Rothmann & Jordaan, 2006).

Increased commitment to the organisation is one of several of the beneficial outcomes derived from nurturing POS in employees. There are several others as discussed next.

3.4.2. Why Perceived Organisational Support Matters

Kurtessis et al. (2017) conducted a meta-analysis on the outcomes (and antecedents) of POS. Outcomes of POS were grouped into three categories. The first category, “orientation toward the organisation and work”, comprised variables like AC, social exchange with organisation, economic exchange with organisation, felt obligation, normative commitment and job involvement, OID, and trust. While “economic exchange with organisation” was found to be negatively related to POS, all the other variables in this category were found to be positively related to POS. As the authors had predicted, POS was found to be more closely related to social exchange than to economic exchange. This is of relevance in the context of academia, since it is widely known that academics are motivated by intrinsic, as opposed to extrinsic

rewards (Bellamy, Morley, & Watty, 2003; Blackmore & Kandiko, 2011). In South Africa, Pienaar and Bester (2006) found that POS-related factors, such as support for research and teaching, affected the job satisfaction of early-stage academics.

The second category, “subjective well-being”, included variables like burnout, emotional exhaustion, job satisfaction, organisation-based self-esteem, and stress. As predicted POS was found to be positively related to job satisfaction and organisation-based self-esteem, but negatively related to burnout, emotional exhaustion, and stress. It is likely that burnout, emotional exhaustion, and stress could be experienced by contemporary academics in the face of the changes brought about by managerialism and marketisation. Therefore, nurturing POS would seem to be important to avert these negative outcomes.

The final category, “behavioural outcomes”, comprised variables such as effort on behalf of the organisation, in-role performance, OCB, counterproductive work behaviours (CWB), and turnover intentions. As the authors predicted, the variables, effort on behalf of the organisation, in-role performance, and OCB, were found to be positively related to POS, while CWB and turnover intentions were found to be negatively related to POS (Kurtessis et al., 2017). Academics’ in-role performance is likely to affect the quality of the student learning experience (Capelleras, 2005), hence a critical outcome of POS in the context of higher education. In South Africa, Mensele and Coetzee (2014) found that the academics in their sample who perceived that the values of their institution were compatible with their own personal values, were more likely to want to stay in the organisation. This is relevant since value congruence has been found to be an antecedent of POS (Kurtessis et al., 2017). Having highlighted the relevance to academics working in higher education institutions, the next section discusses the antecedents of POS.

3.4.3. Antecedents of Perceived Organisational Support

As with the authors’ meta-analysis of POS outcomes, Kurtessis et al.’s (2017), grouped its antecedents into three categories. The first category, “treatment by organisation members”, included variables such as abusive supervision, leader–member exchange (LMX), supervisor and co-worker supportiveness, as well as transformational and transactional leadership. Abusive supervision was found to be negatively related to POS as the authors had predicted. On the other hand, LMX, supervisor and co-worker supportiveness, as well as transformational and transactional leadership, were all found to be positively related to POS

as hypothesised. The authors found “support from higher-status organizational members” to be “more strongly interpreted by employees as organizational support” (Kurtessis et al., 2017, p. 1861). In an academic context, this could mean that support from deans of faculties might be more strongly perceived as support from the institution, than would support from immediate heads of departments.

The second category, “employee–organisation relationship quality”, comprised variables such as value congruence with the organisation, fairness, perceived organisational politics, and psychological contracts. As predicted, the authors found that perceived organisational politics and psychological contract breach were negatively related to POS. On the other hand, also as predicted, value congruence (with the organisation) and fairness were found to be strongly related to POS. While the three different forms of fairness, i.e. procedural justice, distributive justice, and interactional justice, were all found to be strongly related to POS, POS was more strongly related to procedural justice, than to distributive justice and interactional justice. The authors stated that “these results suggest that employees place an added emphasis on general enduring characteristics of the organization as indications of the organization’s favorable or unfavorable orientation toward them” (Kurtessis et al., 2017, p. 1864). In the context of this study, perceived procedural justice regarding decisions taken by the institution’s agents might, for example, be linked to issues like academics’ promotion criteria.

The final category, “human resource practices and job conditions”, included variables like developmental opportunities, job security, flexible work schedule, autonomy, role ambiguity, role conflict, and role overload. As predicted, developmental opportunities, job security, flexible work schedule, and autonomy were found to be strongly related to POS. The result regarding autonomy is particularly relevant in the context of academia, since it is widely accepted that academics deeply value this job condition. On the other hand, role ambiguity, role conflict, and role overload were found to be negatively associated with POS, as hypothesised (Kurtessis et al., 2017). Given the tension between academics’ research and teaching roles (Adcroft & Taylor, 2013; Harris, 2005), and the increasing administrative workload (Tight, 2010), these are variables that could conceivably influence the POS of academics. Furthermore, job enrichment conditions as a group (developmental opportunities, job security, flexible work schedule, and autonomy) were more closely related to POS than role stressors as a group (role conflict, role ambiguity, role conflict, and role overload). Eisenberger and Stinglhamber (2011), argued that while pressure and stress are unfavourable, most employees attribute these factors to their jobs as opposed to their employers’ intentional

actions. Accordingly, the authors highlighted the role of attribution in determining how employees perceive positive or adverse experiences at work, as related to POS. This raises the question as to whether the increasing administrative burden of academics might be seen as part of the job or enforced upon them by the institution.

3.4.4. How Perceived Organisational Support Drives Work Outcomes

Substantial evidence has been found regarding the influence of POS on beneficial work outcomes such as AC, job satisfaction, in-role and extra-role performance, and lower turnover intentions (Kurtessis et al., 2017; Ngo et al., 2013). Organisational support theory (OST) explains how POS generates these positive work outcomes.

OST proposes that, according to the norm of reciprocity, the benefits derived from POS result in the employee's felt obligation to be concerned for the organisation's welfare and to help it reach its objectives (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). OST brings about social exchange relationships (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005), where employees trade effort and loyalty in exchange for tangible benefits and social resources from the organisation (Kurtessis et al., 2017). In summarising the other key tenets of OST, Rhoades & Eisenberger (2002) pointed out the following principles: Firstly, POS will be bolstered by favourable treatment to the extent that employees perceive that this favourable treatment was provided voluntarily (rather for reasons related to external constraints or policies). Secondly, the respect, caring and approval associated with POS should fulfil employees' socio-emotional needs. Thirdly, POS should support employees' beliefs that their organisation rewards improved performance. Kurtessis et al. (2017) organised the results of their meta-analysis through the lens of OST, using the principles of social exchange, attribution, and self-enhancement to guide their hypotheses. The authors cited: "According to OST, POS increases employees' positive orientation toward the organization through social exchange by eliciting increased felt obligation, trust, and expectation that effort on behalf of the organization will be rewarded" (p. 1855).

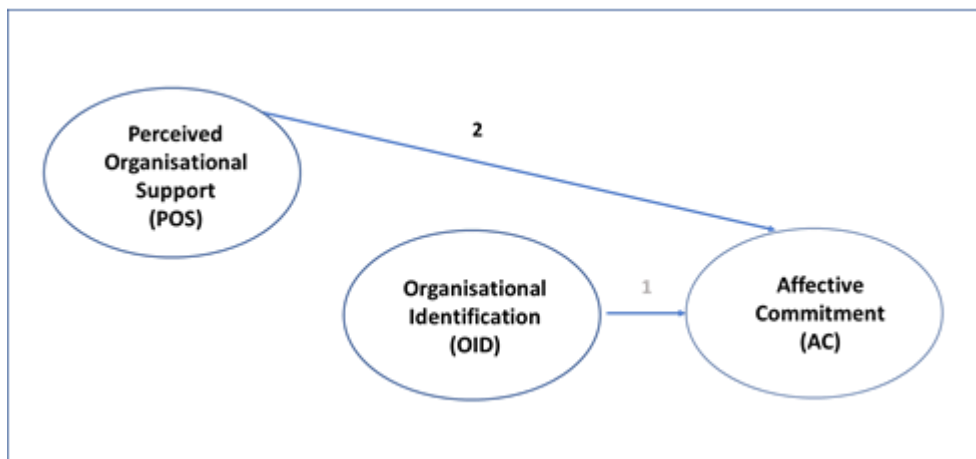
However, in the higher education context, many of these principles are conceivably being compromised in the face of managerialism and marketisation. The increasing administrative burden (Tight, 2010), or the need to secure funding for research (Billot, 2011), might well influence academics' perceptions of whether the institution is treating them favourably. Finally, the tensions regarding research outputs to meet predetermined targets (Adcroft &

Taylor, 2013; Waitere et al., 2011) may affect the academic's belief that the institution is rewarding their performance in ways that they perceive to be mutually beneficial. Thus, it seems important to establish how and if POS influences AC in this context.

3.4.5. Perceived Organisational Support and Affective Commitment

The next relationship in the conceptual model is that between POS and AC as depicted by number 2 in Figure 4 below:

Figure 4 Perceived Organisational Support and Affective Commitment



POS has been strongly and positively linked to AC in many studies (Bishop, Scott, Goldsby, & Cropanzano, 2005; Casimir, Ngee Keith Ng, Yuan Wang, & Ooi, 2014; Guerrero & Herrbach, 2009; Lee & Peccei, 2007; Marique et al., 2013; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Riggle, Edmondson, & Hansen, 2009; Shore & Wayne, 1993; Stinglhamber, Caesens, Clark, & Eisenberger, 2016). While POS has been found to be correlated with a range of other beneficial outcomes, Rhoades and Eisenberger's (2002) meta-analysis indicated that POS is most strongly related to organisational attachment type constructs such as AC and turnover intentions (Fuller et al., 2006a). Riggle, Edmondson and Hansen's (2009) meta-analysis confirmed the strong relationship between POS and OC, and found that POS explained over 50% of the variance of OC.

Studies have been more concerned with the relationship between POS and AC, than with POS and the other two forms of commitment, being NC and CC (Kurtessis et al., 2017; Stinglhamber et al., 2016). POS was also found to be the strongest driver of AC in a meta-analysis carried out by Meyer et al. (2002). Although strong correlations had previously been found, causality (i.e. the direction of the relationship) was only confirmed when Rhoades,

Eisenberger and Armeli (2001), using a cross-lagged panel design, established that POS is an antecedent of AC.

Supporting OST's assumption that POS affects AC via the mechanism of reciprocity, Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, Rhoades (Eisenberger et al., 2001) found that felt obligation mediated the relationship between POS and AC. Further supporting this notion, they found that exchange ideology moderated the relationship between POS and felt obligation, i.e. a higher exchange ideology strengthened the relationship between POS and felt obligation. In a meta-analytic review of POS, Kurtessis (2017) confirmed that high-POS employees were linked to greater felt obligation toward organisational goals and objectives and in turn, higher AC.

Investigating four higher education institutions in Malaysia, Lew (2009) found POS to be related to academics' AC both directly, as well as indirectly, via felt obligation as a mediator. At a Dutch university, Van Knippenberg and Sleebos (2006) found a strong relationship between POS and AC of faculty members. In the southern United States, Fuller et al (2006b) conducted a study of the impact of POS on the AC of university faculty, staff and administrators. The authors also found that POS was positively related to the AC of faculty (albeit less strongly than to the AC of staff and administrators). Joiner and Bakalis (2006) studied the Affective Commitment of Australian academics, and found that supervisor, co-worker support and access to resources, all associated with POS, are strongly related to AC. Therefore, based on these findings, as well as the rest of the theory and empirical evidence provided, the second hypothesis of this study is presented:

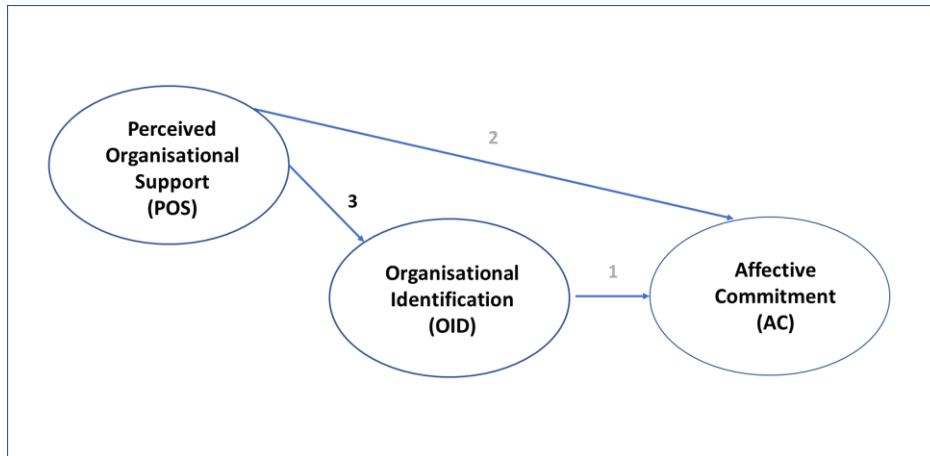
H2a: Perceived organisational support is positively related to affective commitment.

This hypothesis suggests that academics perceiving that their employing university cares for their well-being, and values their contribution, will be more likely to develop an emotional attachment to that institution.

3.4.6. Perceived Organisational Support and Organisational Identification

Number 3 in Figure 5 shows the relationship between POS and OID. The development of this hypothesis is discussed below.

Figure 5 Perceived Organisational Support & Organisational Identification



In accordance with OST, by meeting socio-emotional needs such as approval, affiliation and esteem, POS increases the attractiveness of the organisation — in turn, increasing employees’ OID (Kurtessis et al., 2017; Stinglhamber et al., 2016). However, Fuller et al. (2006a) suggested that the relationship between POS and OID may be explained using an alternative theoretical framework referred to as the “group engagement model” (GEM, Tyler & Blader, 2003). GEM builds on SIT and proposes that to the extent that employees believe they are treated fairly, or in a procedurally just manner by the organisation, they will feel respected and valued, which will lead to identification with the organisation. GEM further theorises that this identification develops through employees’ evaluations of two types of status. While one type of status relates to external affirmation in the form of “pride” or “prestige”, the second relates to employees’ view about their status within the group, typically represented by “respect” (Tyler & Blader, 2003). GEM holds that both the perceived prestige of the organisation, and the perceived respect bestowed onto the individual within the organisation, influences the extent of the employee’s OID. POS may represent this perceived respect because it encapsulates employee’s perception of his/her own “informal status”. It signals to employees how valued they are and therefore what their status is within the organisation. When fair and supportive treatment is experienced, employees receive information that their employing organisation respects them and values their contribution, boosting their self-esteem (Edwards, 2009; Fuller et al., 2006a). In the case of higher education, internal recognition by agents of the institution regarding successful journal publications, for example, might indicate

that an academic's contribution is valued by the institution, and may enhance his/her self-esteem.

Van Knippenberg and Sleebos (2006) found that POS was moderately related to OID. However, this relationship became insignificant when controlling for AC. These authors argued that this was because commitment is “more exchange-based than identification”, and therefore that SET, rather than SIT, is the mechanism through which POS operates. Also suggesting that the SET process explains how POS relates to its antecedents, Edwards (2009) found a strong relationship between POS and OID. In addition, the author found that POS mediated the relationship between various HRM practices and OID. Edwards (2009) posited that when the organisation provides an employee with rewards in the form of socio-emotional support, the employee forms a bond with the organisation following the norm of reciprocity. Furthermore, this bonding occurs through a process of identification with the organisation, because self-esteem is enhanced when employees feel their organisation values and supports them (Edwards, 2009). Supporting the use of SET to explain the relationship between POS and OID, a Vietnamese study of white collar workers found that POS was positively related to OID and that the employee's exchange ideology moderated the relationship between POS and OID; the greater the exchange ideology, the stronger the link between POS and OID (He et al., 2014).

Several recent studies have provided further evidence of the positive relationship between POS and OID (Edwards & Peccei, 2010; Kurtessis et al., 2017; Sluss, Klimchak, & Holmes, 2008; Stinglhamber et al., 2015). Therefore, based on the evidence discussed, the third hypothesis in this study is presented:

H2b: Perceived organisational support is positively related to organisational identification.

This hypothesis suggests that when academics feel supported by their institution, their identification with their institution will grow. In concluding this section, it seems that despite some differences in theoretical viewpoints, both SET (reciprocity and exchange) and SIT (self-enhancement) processes have roles to play in explaining the relationship between POS and OID. The next section shows how SET and SIT have been integrated to explain the indirect relationship between POS and AC, via the mediation effect of OID.

3.4.7. Indirect Influence of Perceived Organisational Support

Until recently, SET was used most frequently to explain the relationship between POS and AC (Caesens et al., 2014). Nevertheless, a few studies have integrated SET and SIT (Caesens et al., 2014; Guerrero & Herrbach, 2009; Tavares, van Knippenberg, & van Dick, 2016). Some authors have suggested that self-definition and self-categorisation might better explain certain aspects of the employee-organisation relationship, than do theories of exchange and reciprocity, while others have suggested that the two theories are complementary.

According to Caesens et al. (2014), the employee's 'exchange ideology' (Eisenberger et al., 2001) will determine whether SET processes occur. The more the employee is likely to apply the norm of reciprocity to their relationship with the organisation, the more likely that POS will generate felt obligation and in turn, stronger AC. However, when a strong exchange ideology is lacking, OID may offer an alternative mechanism to explain the strong relationship between POS and AC (Caesens et al., 2014). Supporting the notion that a self-esteem related concept could offer another mechanism, a Korean study found that organisation-based self-esteem (OBSE) mediated the relationship between POS and AC (Lee & Peccei, 2007).

Authors have also argued that OID represents a step towards the forming of an emotional attachment to the organisation (Caesens et al., 2014; Guerrero & Herrbach, 2009; Marique et al., 2013; Ngo et al., 2013). Marique et al. (2013) found that POS increased OID, which in turn led to increased AC. The authors mentioned that their results supported Peccei (2007)'s suggestion that felt obligation only partially mediates the relationship between POS and AC. Rather, socio-emotional factors may explain this relationship as well.

It was further theorised that POS constitutes a form of "internal respect", i.e. representing informal status within the organisation, and is therefore likely to result in stronger OID according to GEM³⁰. Stronger OID, in turn, impacts on desirable attitudes such as AC (Caesens et al., 2014). Therefore, when academics perceive their institution is supporting them, they might develop OID, and flowing from OID, it is likely that AC might develop. There is substantial recent empirical evidence that confirms the mediating or partially mediating effect of OID in the relationship between POS and AC (Caesens et al., 2014; Ngo

³⁰ GEM posits that identification develops through the employee's evaluations of internal and external status.

et al., 2013; Stinglhamber et al., 2015). Therefore, based on this discussion and the empirical evidence to date, the fourth hypothesis is proposed:

H2c: Organisational identification partially mediates the relationship between perceived organisational support and affective commitment.

In the context of higher education, this hypothesis suggests that the relationship between academics' perception of support and their emotional attachment to the institution, may be partially mediated by their identification with the university. This concludes the discussion about POS, and its relationships with both AC and OID, respectively. Having now discussed three of the four concepts in the conceptual model, namely, AC, OID and POS, the literature review turns to the final concept, that of PER.

3.5. Perceived External Reputation

This section begins with background to the broader concept of reputation, then defines PER and thereafter develops the hypotheses pertaining to the relationship between this construct and the other constructs in the study.

3.5.1. Reputation

Identification with an organisation develops as its members experience the organisation's identity by means of its reputation, image, values, mission, as well as the specific characteristics of leaders and other members of the organisation (Gonzalez & Chakraborty, 2012). In addition to how this organisational identity is perceived from within the organisation, Dutton, Dukerich and Harquail, (1994) proposed that outsiders' beliefs about an organisation can influence the OID of insiders. The construct of PER is an employee-based construct, and its effect on AC (concurrently with POS) is being tested in the study. However, before defining the construct of PER, the broader concept of reputation³¹ is discussed to provide appropriate context.

The literature revealed that “reputation” is a complex phenomenon. The nuances of PER need to be contextualised by some of the pertinent issues surrounding the broader concept of reputation, which are discussed in this section. It begins with an overview of how reputation

³¹ In the context of this study, the term “reputation” refers to corporate, organisational, or institutional reputation, unless explicitly stated otherwise.

has been defined, proceeds to discuss reputation as a stakeholder concept, and finally, explores the multidimensionality of reputation.

Contrary to the general use and understanding of reputation as a concept, clearly defining reputation as a construct has been fraught with difficulty among scholars and practitioners. Reputation is a multidisciplinary concept, explored in diverse areas such as organisational psychology, organisational studies, sociology, economics, business and management studies, accounting, marketing, and corporate communications. Although numerous attempts have been made to bring clarity to the confusion (Barnett, Jermier, & Lafferty, 2006; Lange, Lee, & Dai, 2011; Walker, 2010; Wartick, 2002), there still appears to be no consensus on a universal definition nor has a coherent theory emerged (Helm, 2011a). However, a definition that continues to be the most consistently quoted in the extant literature (Walker, 2010; Wartick, 2002) is Fombrun's (1996) definition: "a perceptual representation of a company's past actions and future prospects that describes the firm's overall appeal to all of its key constituents when compared with other leading rivals" (p. 72). Another view, which according to Helm (2011) is broadly accepted, defines corporate reputation as: "a global, temporally stable, evaluative judgment about a firm that is shared by multiple constituencies" (Highhouse, Broadfoot, Yugo, & Devendorf, 2009, p. 783). What most of the definitions have in common is the collective nature of corporate reputation, i.e. that reputation constitutes aggregate perceptions regarding attributes of the organisation (Helm, 2011; Wartick, 2002).

In this study, PER is deemed to be based on how the academics being studied view the collective perspective of their higher education institution's relevant stakeholders, namely the students and parents, employers, society at large, higher education bodies (e.g. CHE), ranking agencies, and the media.

3.5.1.1. Reputation as a Stakeholder-Related Concept

Reputation is socially constructed in the minds of stakeholders, representing their emotions, beliefs and cognitions about the organisation (Helm, 2013; Musteen, Datta, & Kemmerer, 2010; Rindova, Williamson, & Petkova, 2010). Stakeholder theory suggests that the organisation should be studied with special regard to its primary interest constituents. These constituents, being the 'stakeholders', are individuals or groups that can claim a legitimate interest in the organisation's activities; they maintain relationships with the organisation, both affecting and being affected by its behaviours (Carmeli et al., 2006). Stakeholder theory has

distinguished between different stakeholders, such as employees, customers, suppliers, shareholders, investors, government and non-government organisations, the media, the public, and community groups. It is now widely recognised that reputation is a stakeholder-related concept and that the organisation's reputation emerges from multiple constituent groups and their multiple interactions over time (Fombrun & Shanley, 1990; Rindova, Williamson, Petkova, & Sever, 2005).

Depending on whether the stakeholders are internal or external to the organisation, their views of the organisation's reputation may be different, and sometimes misaligned, i.e. insiders' perceptions of how outsiders see the organisation's reputation compared with how outsiders actually view it (Brown, Dacin, Pratt, & Whetten, 2006; Helm, 2013). Based on SIT, the group members share a meta-stereotype, i.e. a set of impressions that insiders expect outsiders to have about the group. A negative evaluation of the meta-stereotype may adversely affect the level of identification that the group member has with the group, and vice versa (Owuamalam & Zagefka, 2011). This study follows a stakeholder approach, focusing exclusively on academics/university faculty, being among the most important internal stakeholders of a university.

3.5.1.2. The Multidimensionality of Reputation

Berens and van Riel (2004) stated that although reputation can be described as an overall judgement of 'good' versus 'bad', this one-dimensional view does not fully capture the complexity of views which most stakeholders have of organisations. Multiple perceptions are often held of an organisation, and these may be too complex to be labelled as merely 'good' or 'bad'. Developed for use in the private sector, Fombrun and Shanley's (1990) reputation building framework was one of the first to incorporate the multidimensional nature of reputation. Their model linked the construct to dimensions such as profitability, market value, institutional ownership, media visibility, social responsibility, advertising intensity, and diversification factors (Rhee & Valdez, 2009). Fombrun, Gardberg, and Sever (2000) later developed the "reputation quotient" (RQ), which presented six dimensions of reputation: emotional appeal, products and services, vision and leadership, workplace environment, social and environmental responsibility, and financial performance. These six dimensions each affect shareholder behaviour and the organisation's profitability in a different manner. A private sector firm can, for example, have a good reputation for providing high quality products while having a bad reputation for environmental policy. This may result in different

stakeholders (e.g. consumers and the local community) having different perceptions of the firm's reputation (Rhee & Valdez, 2009).

This study took cognisance of the various ways in which a higher education institution could be evaluated and deliberately took a multidimensional view of PER. Typically, universities' reputations are based primarily on academic rankings, either locally or internationally (for example, the Quacquarelli Symonds World University Rankings mentioned previously). These rankings are mostly concerned with the quality of research and teaching. If one were to compare this aspect of reputation to a similar aspect in the private sector, it would be aligned to "the quality of products and services". However, products and services make up only one of several reputation dimensions, and by the same token, the higher education institutions can be evaluated on several other dimensions - especially given the changes that have come about because of managerialism and marketisation. For example, "the ability to attract and retain faculty" becomes a crucial reputation dimension in countries where skilled academics are a scarce resource. Similarly, in a competitive market environment, "innovativeness" (in terms of programme offerings, curriculum, and blended learning options) is a relevant dimension. Thus, this multidimensional approach has been used to investigate PER in this study. Having unpacked the nuances of the broader concept of reputation, the definition of PER is explored next.

3.5.2. Defining Perceived External Reputation

Employees form opinions based on messages that they receive and interpret from outsiders, about how these outsiders perceive the organisation they work for (Mignonac, Herrbach, & Guerrero, 2006a; Smidts, Pruyn, & Van Riel, 2001). Dutton et al. (1994) alluded to the important distinction between reputation and construed external image, with the former referring to outsiders' beliefs about what distinguishes an organisation and the latter to employees' own assessment of these beliefs. The authors state that organisational insiders and outsiders "have access to different information about the organisation and apply different values and goals in interpreting this information" (p. 249). Employees' judgments of what their organisation stands for may therefore differ from publicly held perceptions as employees draw upon different sources of information (Carmeli & Tishler, 2005).

Although not exhaustive, Table 6 shows the different ways that the general phenomenon of employees' perceptions of outsiders' beliefs about their employing organisation, has been referred to in the literature.

Table 6 Different Terms describing Perceptions of External Reputation

Concept	Author(s) and Date
Perceived Organisational Prestige	Ashforth and Mael (1989) Mael and Ashforth (1992) Bhattacharya, Rao and Glynn (1995)
Construed External Image	Dutton and Dukerich (1991) Dutton, Dukerich and Harquail (1994) Fuller, Marler, Hester, Frey and Relyea (2006c) Lievens, Van Hove and Anseel (2007)
Perceived Organisational Reputation	Carmeli and Tishler (2005)
Construed Image	Brown, Dacin, Pratt and Whetten (2006)
Perceived External Prestige	Smidts, Pruyn and Van Riel (Smidts et al., 2001) Carmeli, Gilat, and Weisberg (Carmeli et al., 2006) Fuller, Hester, Barnett, Frey, Relyea and Beu (2006a) Bartels, Pruyn, de Jong, and Joustra (2007) Sung and Yang (2008) Hameed, Roques and Ali Arain (2013)
Perceived Organisational Image	Mignonac, Herrbach and Guerrero (2006a)
Perceived Corporate Reputation	Helm (2011) Alniacik, Cigerim, Akcin, & Bayram (2011)
Perceived External Reputation	Helm (2013) Schaarschmidt, Walsh and Ivens (2015)

Helm (2011) defined perceived corporate reputation as “employees’ understanding of how others view their employing organisation” (p. 658). The same definition was applied to the term “perceived external reputation” in a later study by the same author (Helm, 2013). This study has adopted Helm’s (2011, 2013) definition for its interpretation of PER. Adapted for the higher education context, it would define PER as “academics’ understanding of how others view their employing university or institution.

3.5.3. Perceived External Reputation versus Perceived External Prestige

PER is closely related to the constructs of “perceived prestige” (March & Simon, 1958), “perceived organisational prestige” (Mael & Ashforth, 1992) and “perceived external prestige” (PEP, Carmeli, 2005; Smidts et al., 2001), which all refer to employees’ beliefs about how outsiders evaluate the image and status of their organisation (Mignonac et al., 2006a). Fuller et al. (2006a) elaborated on this definition asserting that PEP is “based upon the individual’s evaluation of the extent to which organizational outsiders hold the firm in high regard or esteem because of the positive, socially valued characteristics of the organization” (2006, p. 819). Helm’s (2013) operationalisation of PER — used in this study — measured “individual perceptions of a company based on a cluster of corporate associations representing different stakeholders’ expectations” (2013, p. 547). The author articulated that her study considered PER to comprise “different activities and performances of the organization as indicative of others’ holistic impression of the organization, as supported by Carmeli’s (2004, p. 448) argument that perceived external prestige is ‘a function of several criteria that represent the overall behaviour of the organization’” (p. 547).

PEP has been relatively well studied in the organisational behaviour literature compared to other forms of construed image. This study draws heavily on the research findings that have linked PEP to the other concepts in the study’s conceptual model, since there is a paucity of relevant studies that have used the term PER as operationalised here. Conceptually, the findings regarding PEP and its relationship with correlates of relevance to this study are considered similarly applicable in the case of PER, if tested in the same way. For this reason, I now discuss how these constructs are similar and how they differ, and conclude with the argument for deeming that the findings from studies involving PEP may be used for supporting hypotheses involving PER.

Both PEP and PER reflect the social value to employees of their organisation’s identity (Mignonac et al., 2006a). However, while PEP is “based upon the individual’s evaluation of the extent to which organisational outsiders hold the firm in high regard or esteem” (Fuller et al., 2006a, p. 819), PER considers the multidimensionality of organisational reputation. For example, PER’s measures involve perceptions of what outsiders think of different aspects of the organisation including products and services, level of innovation, social responsibility and the like. In the academic context, the different aspects would include the quality of research and teaching, the quality of university management’s leadership, the ability to attract and retain faculty and so on.

Carmeli et al. (2005) argued that there is a definitional distinction between PEP and construed external image, a construct that is possibly closer to PER than PEP. Construed external image refers to what the employee believes other people outside the organisation, such as customers, competitors and suppliers, think the organisation represents or stands for. PEP, on the other hand, implies a judgement or evaluation about the organisation's status, and refers to the employee's personal beliefs about how outsiders judge the organisation's status and prestige. However, Helm (2013) found that PER was related to "pride in membership" suggesting that a strong overall rating for PER might also infer a positive judgement or evaluation by the employee regarding the external status of the organisation. Both PER and PEP may result from various sources of information, such as word-of-mouth, publicity, external company-controlled information and even internal communication about how the company is perceived by outsiders (Smidts et al., 2001).

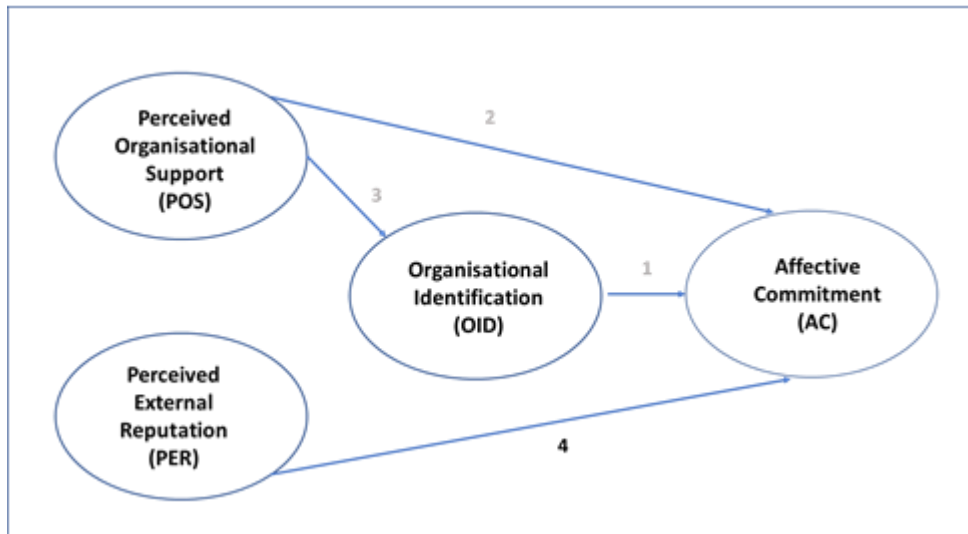
Finally, both PEP and PER contribute towards employees' social status and self-image in a similar fashion (Guerrero & Herrbach, 2009). Favourable PEP and PER are both likely to impact positively on OID. Conversely, an ambiguous or unfavourable perceived reputation may cause employees to distance themselves or become ambivalent towards their organisation (Kreiner & Ashforth, 2004).

In conclusion, results of studies involving PEP might generally be applicable to PER, although it is acknowledged that PER will be most likely to interact with other variables in the same way as PEP, only when it is rated highly, i.e. the overall evaluation of PER is positive rather than neutral. Therefore, the discussion that follows considers relevant studies in which PEP has been tested, and the PEP results are used to formulate the hypotheses involving PER. Importantly (although their meanings are not identical), where PEP is reported on, this term is deemed interchangeable with PER in terms of the rationale supporting the hypothesis development.

3.5.4. Perceived External Reputation and Affective Commitment

Number 4 in Figure 6 shows the hypothesised relationship between PER and AC. The development of this hypothesis is discussed below.

Figure 6 Perceived External Reputation and Affective Commitment



Arguing that PEP can be construed as an indirect exchange reward, Fuller et al. (2006a) investigated the relationship between PEP and AC, asserting that SET should apply to indirect rewards too. According to these authors, SET has largely assumed a dyadic relationship between exchange partners, i.e. the exchange happens between the same two parties, be it the organisation or an agent thereof. Thus, these authors argued that researchers of SET traditionally only paid attention to ‘direct exchange’. However, citing the work of Homans (1961), they suggested that researchers should also focus on exchange rewards that are impersonal and indirect, since these may also impact the bond between two parties. One such indirect reward that an organisation may bestow upon its employee may come in the form of status. Status, gained from organisational membership, would fulfil certain socio-emotional needs, such as self-esteem enhancement. Employees can achieve status either directly, through POS, or indirectly through outsiders who view their employing organisation in high regard. In the latter case, the high regard associated with the organisation is seen to extend to themselves. Fuller et al. (2006a) suggested that the conferred status to the employee based on the organisation’s prestige could be construed as an indirect reward. As such, the mechanism of SET and the associated norm of reciprocity would generate feelings of obligation for the employee to repay the organisation. Demonstrating AC toward the institution is one way that this repayment is likely to manifest. Any special benefits that an academic may qualify for because of the status or prestige of their employing institution, for example, might induce a felt obligation to the institution. Authors have claimed that institutional prestige is important

to academics (Blackmore & Kandiko, 2011; O'Meara & Bloomgarden, 2010) and therefore an institution that enjoys prestige might therefore induce AC in its academics.

Guerrero and Herrbach (2009) proposed that PEP, representing a “characteristic of the organization” (p. 1536), should be related to AC. The authors argued that PEP, despite being “a SIT antecedent”, is likely to influence AC due to the conceptual proximity of OID and AC. They found support for this in their study. Other empirical studies have investigated the effect of PER on AC and found affirming results: Carmeli and Freund (2002, 2009) were among the first researchers to find that PEP is positively correlated with AC. These researchers subsequently found that AC mediated the relationship between PEP and turnover intentions (Carmeli & Freund, 2009). The relationship with AC was also confirmed by Herrbach, et al.(2004), who provided further evidence that AC mediated the relationship between PEP and turnover intentions. Kang, Stewart, and Kim (2011) confirmed PEP as a predictor of OC, but not of career commitment. Brammer, Millington, and Rayton (2007) found that employee perceptions of external corporate social responsibility (which contributes positively to the reputation of the organisation) are positively related to AC. More recently, Podnar and Golob (2015) also found that PEP helps to explain OC in the private sector. In the higher education sector, Alniacik et al. (2011) found evidence that PER was positively correlated to AC of the academic staff of two universities in Turkey. Similarly, in the southern United States, Fuller et al. (2006a) found that PEP was strongly related to AC of university faculty, as they had predicted.

Based on the theory and evidence presented, the following hypothesis is proposed:

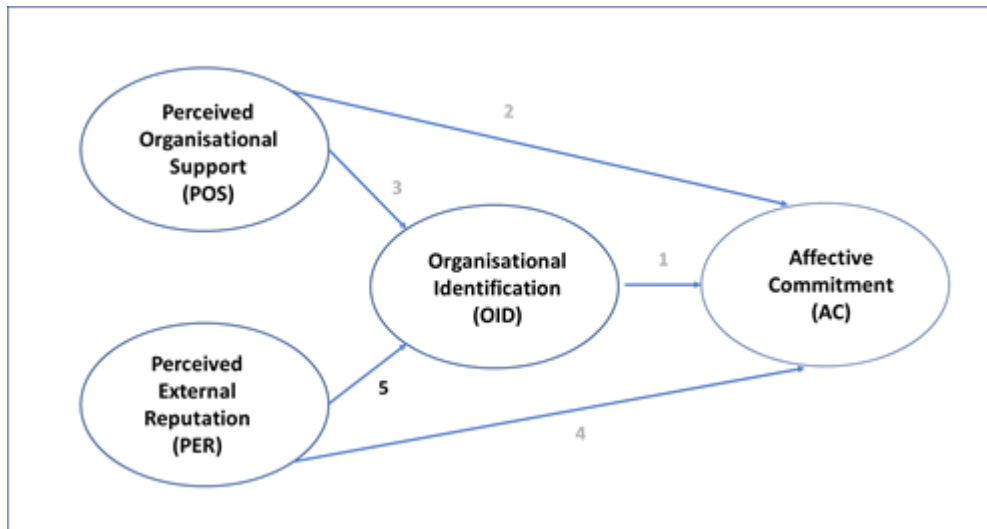
H3a: Perceived external reputation is positively related to affective commitment.

In the academic context, this hypothesis suggests that the more academics perceive that outsiders view their institution in a positive light (based on a few specific aspects), the greater their emotional attachment to the institution will be. In this section a hypothesis for the relationship between PER and AC was developed. The next section develops a hypothesis for the relationship between PER and OID.

3.5.5. Perceived External Reputation and Organisational Identification

Refer to number 5 in the Figure 7 below. This depicts the hypothesised relationship between PER and OID, the development of which is discussed next.

Figure 7 Perceived External Reputation and Organisational Identification



March and Simon (1958) proposed that when employees believe their organisation is held in high esteem by external stakeholders, they tend to identify more strongly with the organisation. SIT forms the basis for understanding the link between PER and OID in that it posits that the individual identifies with social categories partly to enhance his/her self-esteem (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). For this reason, people seek to belong to groups with high status or prestige. In work settings, individuals may use their membership of the organisation as a means of self-definition or self-enhancement. Dutton et al. (1994) argued that when employees believe that outsiders value the organisations they work for, it leads to a positive social identity being developed, which in turn leads to an increased level of attachment to the organisation. When employees believe “that outsiders see the organization in a positive light, they ‘bask in the reflected glory’ of the organization” (Dutton et al., 1994, p. 240).

Tyler (1999) theorised that employees use the status of their organisation when assessing their self-worth. OID is therefore more likely to occur when employees’ organisations are perceived to be prestigious, since being associated with a prestigious organisation enhances self-esteem. GEM (Tyler & Blader, 2003) maintains that PER is one of two status evaluations — PER being an external evaluation, the other being internal — that employees make that shape their self-perceptions and resultant OID. An example in the higher education sector might occur when an academic’s employing university achieves a top international ranking,

thereby influencing the way that the academic is treated by his/her peers from other institutions.

Although Marique et al. (2013) did not find a significant relationship between PEP and OID, several other empirical studies have found evidence that Perceived/Construed Image or Perceived Prestige and similar reputation-related concepts are strongly related to employees' OID. Perceived External Image (Gonzalez & Chakraborty, 2012), Perceived External Prestige (Bartels et al., 2007; Fuller et al., 2006a; Hameed et al., 2013; Podnar, 2011; Podnar & Golob, 2015; Smidts et al., 2001), Perceived Organisational Prestige (Bhattacharya et al., 1995; Mael & Ashforth, 1992), and Construed External Image (Fuller, Marler, Hester, Frey, & Relyea., 2006c; Lievens et al., 2007) were all found to be related to OID. Thus it seems from the empirical evidence to date that to the extent that PER meets basic self-enhancement needs (such as the need for self-esteem), it is likely to be related to OID (Fuller et al., 2006a). The following hypothesis is therefore presented:

H3b: Perceived external reputation is positively related to organisational identification.

In the context of higher education, this hypothesis suggests that the more academics perceive that outsiders view their institution in a positive light, the greater their identification with the institution will be. In this section a hypothesis for the relationship between PER and OID was developed. The next section discusses the indirect relationship between PER and AC, where OID is proposed to partially mediate this relationship.

3.5.6. Indirect Influence of Perceived External Reputation

The reader is reminded that the meaning of the terms PER and PEP are being used interchangeably in this chapter. Results from studies using PEP are assumed to be applicable to PER. Based on this, it has previously been hypothesised that PER is directly related to both OID and AC. It has also been argued that OID is positively related to AC. These three hypotheses viewed together, might suggest that it is possible for OID to mediate an indirect relationship between PER and AC.

It is therefore not surprising that empirical studies have demonstrated that OID partially or fully mediates the relationship between PEP and AC (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000; Carmeli et al., 2006; Ciftcioglu, 2010; Podnar & Golob, 2015). Since it has been argued that PER will behave in a similar manner to PEP, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H3c: Organisational identification partially mediates the relationship between perceived external reputation and affective commitment.

In the context of academia, this hypothesis suggests that the relationship between academics' perception of how outsiders view their institution and their emotional attachment to the institution may be partially mediated by their identification with the university. Having presented the theory and empirical evidence supporting the seven hypotheses in this study, the final section of the conceptual framework chapter presents the consolidated conceptual model.

3.6. Conclusion

This section presents the consolidated conceptual model that was tested, with a diagram that shows the hypotheses for the direct relationships, and a summary that concludes the conceptual framework chapter.

3.6.1. Conceptual Model

Based on the theory and empirical results presented in the conceptual framework chapter, the study's hypotheses can now be summarised as follows:

H1: Organisational identification is positively related to affective commitment.

H2a: Perceived organisational support is positively related to affective commitment.

H2b: Perceived organisational support is positively related to organisational identification.

H2c: Organisational identification partially mediates the relationship between perceived organisational support and affective commitment.

Simultaneously:

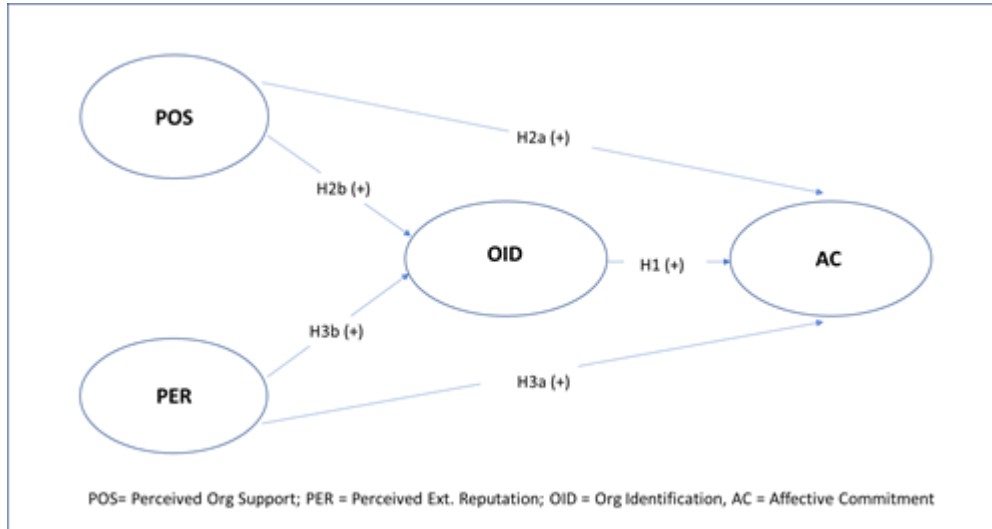
H3a: Perceived external reputation is positively related to affective commitment.

H3b: Perceived external reputation is positively related to organisational identification.

H3c: Organisational identification partially mediates the relationship between perceived external reputation and affective commitment.

Figure 8 shows the consolidated conceptual model that was tested, based on the respective hypotheses that were developed from the literature.³².

Figure 8 Conceptual Model Specifying Hypothesised Structural Relationships



3.6.2. Summary

This chapter discussed each of the four constructs of interest, specifically highlighting their theoretical underpinnings in terms of definitions, conceptualisations, mechanisms, outcomes and antecedents. Regarding the proposed relationships existing between the four key constructs, the chapter provided the rationale for the development of the seven hypotheses. Where possible, theory and results were related to the academic context. The chapter culminated in the conceptual model that was developed from the literature and tested in this study. The next chapter discusses the research methodology.

³² To maintain clarity in the diagram, the two indirect relationships have not been indicated.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study investigated the concurrent effects of perceived organisational support (POS) and perceived external reputation (PER) on both the organisational identification (OID) and affective commitment (AC) of academics at a South African university. This chapter describes the research methodology that was used to address the research questions. It begins with an overview of my philosophical stance, then proceeds to discuss the use of mixed methods in the design of the study, followed by a detailed discussion of how the entire design was carried out. The chapter concludes with a section on the ethical considerations of the study.

4.1. Philosophical Foundation

A paradigm or worldview (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011) will usually guide the researcher's choice of methodology. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2013) defined a paradigm as comprising the researcher's ontological, epistemological, axiological, aesthetic and methodological beliefs. Morgan (2014), alluding to his earlier work, provided an alternative definition where a paradigm relates to beliefs shared by a research community about which questions are deemed most meaningful and which are the appropriate methods for answering them. Although respective paradigms associated with quantitative and qualitative research methods are relatively established in social science literature, the issue of a paradigm related to mixed methods research, i.e. research comprising both quantitative and qualitative data collection, and analysis, is still being discussed and debated by methodologists.

Traditionally, studies of the antecedents and consequences of constructs such as PER, POS, OID and AC have been conducted through quantitative research methods. The postpositive paradigm is the philosophical stance most commonly associated with quantitative research in the human science arena (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). Postpositivism, in contrast with positivism, does not advocate strict cause and effect, instead acknowledging that cause and effect is related to probability, and may or may not occur (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Nonetheless, this philosophy, similarly oriented towards the quantitative vision of science (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009), involves reductionism, empirical observation, measurement, and theory testing (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). These views support the ontological

notion of a singular reality, suggesting that “social observations should be treated as entities in much the same way that physical scientists treat physical phenomena” (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2013, p. 14). Epistemologically, it is believed that data should be objectively collected with both distance and impartiality on the part of the researcher (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

However, Bazeley (2012) argued that to understand human behaviour, a combination of empiricism and interpretation is required. Constructivism has emerged as the most popular of several paradigms that have sought to address some of the limitations of the postpositivist approach (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). The constructivist’s ontological stance is that multiple realities exist, and epistemologically, points to the integral role of the researcher in data collection. Constructivism is generally associated with multiple participant meanings, social constructivism, and theory generation (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

This then begs the question: can a researcher simultaneously take a postpositivist and constructivist approach to her study? Purists of both quantitative and qualitative research have been engaged in a paradigm war for many years, believing that qualitative and quantitative research paradigms, as well as their related methods, are incompatible and are not able to be mixed (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2013). As a result of this ongoing debate, various stances have been adopted by scholars, for example, the “a-paradigmatic stance” which advocates that the epistemology-methods link is superfluous; the “complementary strengths thesis” arguing that mixed methods research is possible as long as there is a separation of the quantitative and qualitative methods; and the “single paradigm thesis” where scholars have identified a paradigm (such as pragmatism or the transformative perspective) to justify their mixed methods research (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). Bryman (2016) has simplified this debate somewhat by proposing two different ways in which the nature of quantitative and qualitative research can be understood. The first view has been labelled the epistemological version, and views quantitative and qualitative research as embedded in epistemological and ontological principles, thereby deeming the mixing of these methods as impossible due to the incompatibility of the two paradigms. The second is a technical version that places more emphasis on the strengths of the data-collection and data-analysis techniques associated with quantitative and qualitative research respectively and views these research methods as capable of being merged. While this approach acknowledges that quantitative and qualitative research are each associated with specific epistemological and ontological assumptions, these are not viewed as inflexible and preordained (Bryman, 2016). Finally, this perspective views

quantitative and qualitative research as compatible, and provides a segue into the worldview that informs this study's methodology, namely that of pragmatism.

4.1.1. Pragmatism as a Worldview

Based on the work of historical philosophers such as John Dewey (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011), pragmatism has been embraced as the most popular paradigm or worldview by mixed methods scholars (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). Pragmatism as a worldview commensurate with mixed methods, was formally proposed by Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) who advocated the following views:

- Quantitative and qualitative research methods can be used in a single study;
- The research question takes precedence over other considerations (i.e. the method or underpinning philosophical stance is of secondary importance);
- There is no need to make a mutually exclusive choice between postpositivism and constructivism; and
- Methodological choices should be guided by practical considerations and an applied research philosophy (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) asserted the ontology of pragmatism to be the belief that both single and multiple realities exist, while the epistemology is distinguished through the practical nature of data collection by the researcher, and the axiology encompasses both biased and unbiased perspectives. Methodologically, both quantitative and qualitative data are collected and mixed.

4.1.2. Pragmatism and Mixed Methods

This study subscribes to the worldview of pragmatism, which allows for multiple philosophical positions. While this worldview supports the notion of multiple perspectives of reality; at the same time, it acknowledges that there are patterns and trends that can be predicted for a target population. The research design begins from a mostly postpositivist stance (associated with the quantitative phase of the study) and shifts to a more constructivist orientation (during the qualitative phase).

Another important consideration for the pragmatist is that of context. As Morgan (2014) pointed out, any effort to produce knowledge happens within a social context. In terms of context, this research has been conducted during a very specific period in the history of the

institution that was studied. The events that took place just prior to the study were likely to influence the results, and the meanings and interpretation thereof. Using the mixed methods approach allowed for an appreciation of the role that context played and enriched my understanding (and potentially also that of the reader) regarding the results of the study. Finally, the research questions involved human beings. Human beings have emotions and experiences. It seemed inadequate to embark on a purely quantitative study, since without a qualitative component, the feelings and lived experiences underlying the numbers would have been hidden from the study. It is also worth noting that the use of mixed methods has gained more acceptance in the past fifteen years and has become more frequently used in social science studies (Bryman, 2016).

The mixed methods approach in this study took place in two distinct and consecutive phases. The first phase was largely quantitative, with a small embedded qualitative component. This was followed up by a second phase, comprising a qualitative inquiry to gain further insights and explanations for the quantitative findings. Using this pragmatic approach enabled the formulation of a more complete answer to the research questions.

4.1.3. Benefits and Challenges of Using Mixed Methods

There are several specific reasons for conducting mixed methods research. Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) suggest that it is suitable for researchers who want to explain the reasons or mechanisms behind the quantitative relationships and trends that they have assessed. The main benefits for this study include what Bryman (2006) calls “completeness” and “explanation”. Completeness suggests that if both quantitative and qualitative research are conducted, the researcher can provide a more comprehensive account of the research phenomenon. Explanation simply means that one of the two research methods can assist with explaining results generated by the other. Alternatively, the design approach in this study can be described as “complementarity” – from Greene and Caracelli’s typology of designs (as cited in Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009) – where “findings from one dominant method are enhanced or elaborated through findings from another method” (p. 161). Finally, of relevance in this study, Morse (1991) suggested that mixed methods can be “especially useful when unexpected results arise from a quantitative study” (Ivankova, Creswell, & Stick, 2006, p. 5).

However, in addition to the paradigm debate touched on earlier, there are practical challenges in using a mixed methods design. Mixed methods designs generally need a longer time period

in which to conduct the research, and there may be resource constraints involved in collecting both quantitative and qualitative types of data (Ivankova et al., 2006). When planning the study, the extra time and resources that would be required were considered. Notwithstanding this, the benefits of using a mixed methods design were deemed to outweigh the challenges.

4.1.4. Research Questions and Mixed Methods Purpose Statement

The following section presents study's research questions, and then articulates the mixed methods purpose statement. Thereafter, the corresponding quantitative and qualitative research questions, as well as the "mixed methods research question" (MMRQ) are expressed.

4.1.4.1. Primary Research Questions

The study's overarching research question was:

How do academics' perceptions of institutional support, and of how outsiders' view their university, simultaneously influence their identification with, and commitment to, their university?

This question was broken down into three sub-questions:

1. How does academics' identification with their institutions affect their organisational commitment?
2. How do academics' perceptions of institutional support affect their identification with, and commitment to, their institution?
3. How do academics' perceptions of outsiders' views of their university affect their identification with, and commitment to, their institution?

The mixed methods purpose statement below articulated how these questions would be answered.

4.1.4.2. Mixed Methods Purpose Statement

While purpose statements are essential in all research projects, the need for clarity is heightened in a mixed methods study, since it includes both quantitative and qualitative

purpose statements. Following Creswell and Plano Clark's (2011) guidelines, the purpose statement of this study — drafted shortly after the proposal stage — was expressed as follows:

The intent of this study is to investigate the concurrent effects of academics' perceptions of institutional support and of outsiders' view of the university on their commitment to, and identification with, their institution. An explanatory sequential mixed methods design will be used. This involves collecting quantitative data first, and thereafter explaining the quantitative results with qualitative data derived from semi-structured interviews. In the quantitative phase of the study, data from an online survey will be collected from academic faculty at the selected South African higher education institution. This data will be employed to test the conceptual model developed in the study. The qualitative phase will be conducted with a subset of the survey respondents and designed to follow up on the results of the quantitative phase with a view to explaining significant, insignificant and any surprising results.

Additionally, given the mixed methods design, it was necessary to distinguish between the quantitative and qualitative research questions, and the MMRQ (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The answers to these different types of questions complement each other in answering the study's main research questions. Having first formulated the mixed methods purpose statement, specific research questions for the study were expressed in terms of the quantitative and qualitative research questions, as well as the MMRQ. These are presented next.

4.1.4.3. Quantitative Research Questions: Hypotheses

The quantitative research questions were articulated as research hypotheses. These were introduced in Chapter Three but are repeated here for the sake of completion. The research hypotheses in this study are as follows:

- H1:* Organisational identification is positively related to affective commitment.
- H2a:* Perceived organisational support is positively related to affective commitment.
- H2b:* Perceived organisational support is positively related to organisational identification.
- H2c:* Organisational identification partially mediates the relationship between perceived organisational support and affective commitment.
- H3a:* Perceived external reputation is positively related to organisational identification.
- H3b:* Perceived external reputation is positively related to affective commitment.
- H3c:* Organisational identification partially mediates the relationship between perceived external reputation and affective commitment.

4.1.4.4. Qualitative Research Questions

In accordance with the explanatory sequential mixed methods research design, the quantitative results must inform the qualitative follow-up study in terms of its focus. This constitutes the “connect” phase of the design. The following broad-based research questions, emerging from the quantitative results, were used to guide the drafting of the interview protocol.

1. What might explain the insignificant impact of perceived external reputation on organisational identification and affective commitment, and the relative importance of perceived organisational support?

Although not directly related to the four main research questions, the following questions were included to provide more insight into the context, and therefore indirectly assisted with the interpretation of the quantitative findings:

2. What factors might explain the low scores obtained for all four constructs?
 - a. Explore and contextualise the meaning of each construct to the participants in the study.
 - b. What factors might influence the development of each construct, positively or negatively?

4.1.4.5. Mixed Methods Research Question

Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) recommended that the MMRQ include elements of both method and content. Accordingly, the MMRQ was stated as follows:

“To what extent did the follow-up qualitative study assist with understanding and explaining a) the insignificant impact of perceived external reputation on organisational identification and affective commitment, and b) the relative importance of perceived organisational support in influencing organisational identification and affective commitment?”

Having presented the quantitative, qualitative and the mixed methods research questions, the next section discusses the research design that was used to answer these questions.

4.1.5. Explanatory Sequential Mixed Methods Research Design

As mentioned in the mixed methods purpose statement above, the research design selected to seek answers to the research questions in this study, is called the “explanatory sequential mixed methods design”, also referred to as the “sequential explanatory mixed methods design” (Ivankova et al., 2006, p. 3).

There are several decisions that must be made when conducting an explanatory sequential mixed methods study (Ivankova et al., 2006):

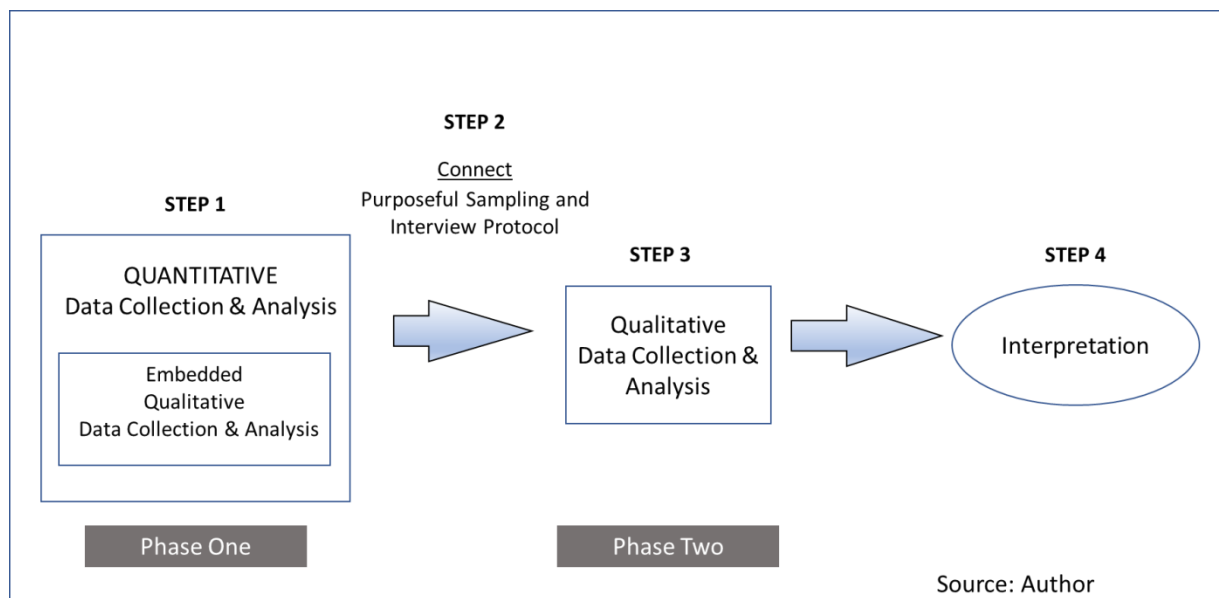
- **Priority** or emphasis given to each strand both in terms of data collection and data analysis
- **Sequencing** of the data collection and the data analysis
- The stage(s) in the process that **connects** the quantitative and qualitative phases
- **Integration** of results from the quantitative and qualitative phases

In the discussion that follows, these decisions as they apply to this study, will be elaborated on. As is typical in an explanatory sequential design, the first phase of this study begins with quantitative data collection, immediately followed by quantitative data analysis. In this study, Phase One is the dominant phase for answering the research question. When a quantitative study is given priority in a mixed methods design, it is conventionally denoted in an upper-case font (i.e. denoted as “QUANTITATIVE”), the capital letters indicating that it is the dominant method. Phase One has an additional component in this study, in the form of a small embedded qualitative element (two open-ended questions in the online survey). This does not, however, impact on the process followed in terms of the explanatory sequential mixed methods design. The second phase, Phase Two, is a qualitative one (conventionally denoted as “qualitative”, the lower-case font indicating that it has lower priority), designed to follow up the quantitative results from the first phase. The purpose of this follow-up phase is for the researcher to interpret how the qualitative findings help explain the quantitative results (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Ivankova et al., 2006).

The notation of this explanatory sequential mixed methods design is therefore “QUANTITATIVE → qualitative”, where emphasis is placed on the quantitative phase, and less emphasis is placed on the follow-up qualitative phase.

There are four steps involved in the design of this study, as illustrated in Figure 9 below:

Figure 9 Steps in the Explanatory Sequential Mixed Methods Design



In Phase One, data was gathered using a survey with mostly closed-ended questions. A detailed description of the data collection process is provided in the next section. As mentioned, the survey included two open-ended questions³³. However, since the results of both parts of the survey would serve to inform the follow-up study, this is in line with the mechanics of the explanatory sequential design.

As Figure 9 shows, the data collection and data analysis corresponding to both components of the first phase are illustrated as “Step 1”. The second step can be referred to as “connecting”, which is “the point of interface for mixing” (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011, p. 83). At this point, Phase One results are used to inform the follow up study, in this case the development of the semi-structured interview protocol. Specific quantitative results that needed explanation were identified first. The results of the small embedded qualitative component served to guide some additional interview questions. Furthermore, as part of Step 2, the sample for the qualitative phase was purposively selected. The details of this “connecting” phase (i.e. development of the interview protocol, and sample selection) is discussed in the section entitled “qualitative data collection” below.

In the third step, the qualitative data was collected and analysed, and finally, in Step 4, the MMRQ was explored to ascertain to what extent, and in what ways (i.e. whether and how),

³³ Ivankova et al. (2006) also included a small qualitative component with their quantitative survey in their explanatory sequential mixed methods design.

the qualitative findings added insights and/or explained the quantitative results. The fourth and final step therefore provided an integration of the entire study's findings.

4.1.6. Mixed Methods Validity

Validity criteria and terminology differs for quantitative and qualitative research. Where the former considers issues such as reliability, replication, internal and external validity, the latter is concerned with those of trustworthiness, credibility, dependability, transferability and confirmability. Onwuegbuzie and Johnson (2006) proposed the term, "legitimation", to provide a term that would describe validity in mixed methods research. This answered Teddlie and Tashakkori's call for a "bilingual nomenclature" (2003, p. 12) that would be acceptable to both quantitative and qualitative researchers. They proposed a typology that developed validity checks for design, data analysis, and interpretation. In sequential mixed methods, for example, sequential legitimation can be expressed as "the extent to which one has minimized the potential problem wherein the meta-inferences could be affected by reversing the sequence of the quantitative and qualitative phases" (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006, p. 57). Meta-inferences are defined as those interpretations or conclusions drawn across the quantitative and qualitative elements (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) suggested that the main reason for employing a mixed methods approach is to gain an improved understanding of the phenomenon being studied. The authors argued that mixed methods are considered "a vehicle for improving the quality of inferences" (p. 300) that are drawn from both quantitative and qualitative methods and developed "an integrative framework for inference quality" to improve "design quality and interpretive rigor" (p. 301). The authors provide criterion with which to evaluate design quality (for example, "design suitability"), and interpretive rigor (for example, "interpretive consistency), along with indicators or audit questions that can be used as assessment tools. Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) expanded on the work done by previous authors and proposed a set of recommendations or strategies that mixed methods researchers should consider at all three stages of research, i.e. data collection, data analysis, and interpretation. This was articulated for each specific type of mixed methods design. Potential validity threats implicit in the explanatory sequential mixed methods design are specifically related to the "connecting" phase. Using these authors' recommendations, the following steps were taken to reduce these threats:

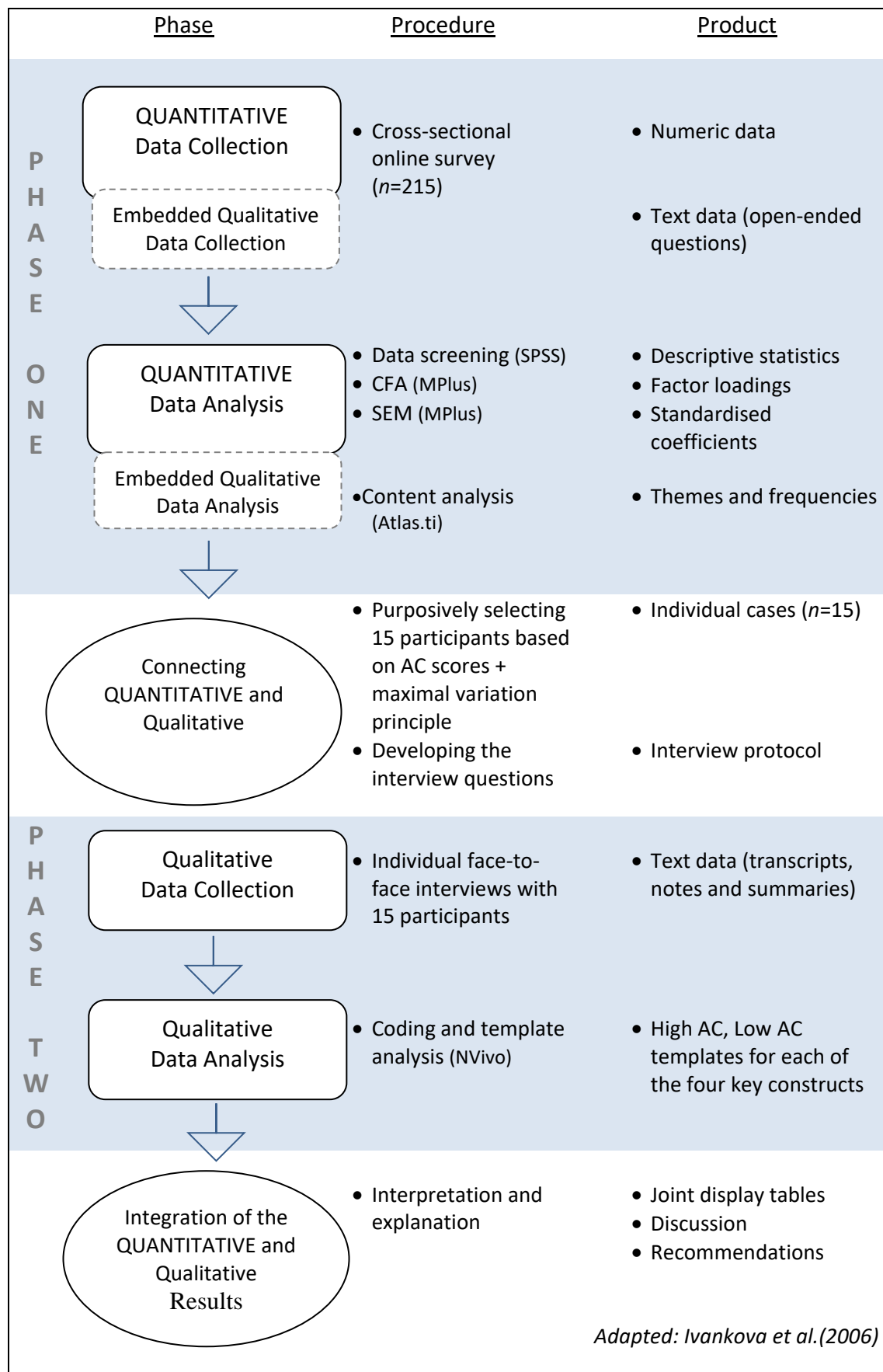
- **Data Collection Validity:** Firstly, to lessen the threat of inappropriate sample sizes, I had a large sample size for the quantitative study and a smaller sample size for the qualitative phase. Secondly, to diminish the threat of selecting inappropriate individuals for the follow-up qualitative data collection, a subset of prospective interviewees from the survey respondents (i.e. a subset of the sample) was selected. Because these individuals had participated in the survey, it reduced the risk of using inadequate participants who would not be able to help explain the results.
- **Data Analysis Validity:** To curtail the threat of choosing weak quantitative results to follow up on qualitatively, the results requiring explanation were carefully considered.
- **Interpretation Validity:** To minimise the threat of “merging” rather than “building” (the latter being the intention for explanatory sequential designs), both sets of results were used to answer the MMRQ, but these were not compared.

4.1.7. Visual Model of Explanatory Sequential Mixed Methods Design

As can be seen from what has been presented so far, there are several stages and steps in the explanatory sequential mixed methods design. Ivankova et al. (2006) developed “an efficient way to visually represent all the nuances of the study design” (p. 9). The authors claimed that the visual model, in addition to being used for their own conceptual purposes, could assist readers and reviewers to have an improved comprehension of what the study entails. Thus Ivankova et al.’s (2006) model was adapted for this study.

Figure 10 presents a visual model that shows the outline of the phases, procedures and products.

Figure 10 Visual Model: Explanatory Sequential Mixed Methods Design



4.2. Phase One: Data Collection

Phase One data was collected via a self-completion online survey. This section discusses the quantitative research design; the sampling methodology; the measures used; details about the survey instrument, including the pros and cons of using the online channel to administer the survey; the pilot study; and finally, the survey response rates.

4.2.1. Quantitative Research Design

The quantitative research took the form of a cross-sectional, ex post facto correlational design. A cross-sectional design involves the collection of data on multiple cases at a single point in time in order to gather quantifiable data comprising at least two variables that are tested for “patterns of association” (Bryman, 2016). Ex post facto correlational designs entail the collection of data involving conditions that already exist in the independent variables, i.e. are not manipulated as in experimental designs (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014). The advantage of this type of design is that it allows testing of anticipated relationships between and/or among variables to make predictions (Stangor, 2015). On the other hand, because the manipulation of variables is not possible, and confounding variables (that may offer alternate explanations) are not controlled for, no firm conclusions can be drawn about causality (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014).

4.2.2. Sampling

The research is being done at the “micro level” where the unit of analysis is the individual, more specifically, the academic. The target population comprised the total number of permanent academic faculty members at one South African university. The sampling method comprised non-probability, convenience sampling. The selected institution offered logistical benefits, particularly in terms of the qualitative research that was scheduled to follow the online survey.

The sampling frame was 1649 academics, comprising all permanent faculty members, i.e. lecturers, senior lecturers, associate professors, professors, and part-time permanent academic faculty — across all the institution’s different academic disciplines and faculties.

Access to the database of the institution’s faculty members was strictly channelled through the Human Resources Department (HR). HR provided a list of faculty members in a Microsoft Office Excel spreadsheet, comprising all permanent academic staff currently employed by the institution. HR policy restricted access to 50% of the database, which was randomly selected

using Statistica. The target list, email covering letter, and the accompanying survey link, was sent to HR, who subsequently sent the survey out via their Listserv on my behalf.

Sample Demographics

Table 7 shows the profile of the 205 respondents that completed the entire survey and provided answers to all the demographic questions.

Table 7 Characteristics of the Sample (n=205)

Demographic	Frequency	%
<i>Gender</i>		
Female	94	45.9
Male	103	50.2
Prefer not to answer	8	3.9
<i>Age</i>		
18 to 24	1	0.5
25 to 34	25	12.2
35 to 44	59	28.8
45 to 54	63	30.7
55 to 64	41	20.0
65 to 74	11	5.4
75 or older	5	2.4
<i>Race / Ethnicity</i>		
African	16	7.8
Coloured	8	3.9
Indian or Asian	8	3.9
White	136	66.3
Prefer not to answer	37	18.0
<i>Academic Position</i>		
Lecturer	56	27.3
Senior Lecturer	57	27.8
Associate Professor	40	19.5
Professor	52	25.4
<i>Tenure</i> (Complete Years)		
0 to 2	28	13.7
3 to 10	85	41.4
11 to 20	58	28.2
21 to 30	20	9.8
31 to 40	11	5.4
41 to 45	3	1.5

Descriptive³⁴ comparisons were made with the demographics of the target population, where relevant data were available. Refer to Appendix F for the full comparative tables.

The gender split of the sample is commensurate with of the target population, which is 52% male, 48% female. While most of the age categories comprised similar percentages (within a percentage point difference), there were discrepancies in two of these categories. Nineteen percent of the target population are between 25–34 years old, whereas only 12% of the sample population fell into that age category. On the other hand, while 24% of the target population are between 45–54 years old, this category comprised 31% of the sample.

A large percentage (18%, n=37) of respondents declined to provide information pertaining to their race/ethnicity. Thus, it is not possible to summarise differences between the sample and the population in this regard. However, the percentage of sample respondents that reported being white (66%) is identical to the proportion of white academics in the target population.

Direct comparisons with the target population were not possible for the penultimate category “academic position”, referring to the respondent’s academic rank. At research-intensive universities, Senior Lecturers, Associate Professors and Professors are usually expected to hold a PhD and generally only Professors sit on the University Senate. These positions were relatively evenly represented in the sample; 28% being Senior Lecturers; 27% being Lecturers; 25% being Professors; and 20% being Associate Professors. Comparisons in terms of tenure or length of service at the university could also not be made with the target population. Nevertheless, there is a reasonable spread across the various categories, as Table 7 reveals. The average tenure is 12 years with a standard deviation of 9.7.

4.2.3. Measuring Instruments

This section provides details about the measures that were used to represent the four key constructs in the proposed conceptual model, namely AC, OID, POS, and PER, which will now be discussed in turn. It also includes the open-ended questions that are asked together with the measures.

³⁴ It was not possible to compare the sample characteristics with those of the target population, therefore comparisons in this regard are merely descriptive as opposed to inferential.

4.2.3.1. Construct Measures

Except for the PER scale, the scales below are true to those well-established instruments upon which they were based. These scales were considered appropriate for the South African higher education context and questions were likely to be clearly understood by the respondents. Cronbach's alpha coefficients (the measure of internal consistency) were reported based on previous relevant studies, such as where the constructs of interest had been used in other South African studies, or in the higher education context, or preferably both. Since it is common practice to deem Cronbach's alpha coefficient values above 0.7 to be acceptable (Hair Jr., Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010), this "rule" was applied when assessing the alpha values.

The wording for the individual items in each scale closely matched the original scale versions, with minor linguistic adjustments to suit the context, as well as to include the name of the higher education institution. Reverse questions have been retained where they were originally validated in the reverse format. For the sake of replicability, the full set of item scales for each construct can be found in Appendix G.

Affective Commitment

The AC scale was adapted from Meyer and Allen's (1997) well-established six-item scale of AC. This scale was reduced by the authors from their original (1990) AC 8-item subscale of their "Organisational Commitment Scale". Each item was measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "Strongly Agree" to "Strongly Disagree". A sample item is: "Seamount University has a great deal of personal meaning for me". Three reverse items were included, and one example is: "I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to Seamount". In this case, a lower score would indicate higher AC.

The Cronbach's alpha from Meyer and Allen's 1997 study was 0.85, indicating that their shortened version of the original AC construct was reliable. A study in a South African tertiary institution, found a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.80 (Field & Buitendach, 2011), while a study done with Malaysian higher education academics, reported a Cronbach's alpha of 0.90 (Lew, 2009). In this current study, a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.85 was recorded for the full six-item scale, indicating an acceptable level of internal consistency.

Organisational Identification

The six-item scale used was adapted from Mael and Ashforth (1992). According to Meyer (2016), this scale is undoubtedly the most commonly used instrument to measure OID. Each item was measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from “Strongly Agree” to “Strongly Disagree”. A typical item was: “When I talk about Seamount University, I usually say 'we' rather than 'they'.” There were no reversed items in this scale.

Van Knippenberg and Sleebos’ (2006) study of Dutch university employees found a Cronbach’s alpha of 0.81 for this scale. In this study, the Cronbach’s Alpha for the six-item scale was 0.77.

Perceived Organisational Support

This five-item scale (Bagraim, 2004) was adapted for South African knowledge workers³⁵ from an 8-item scale adapted by Hutchison in 1997 (from the original 1986 POS scale developed by Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison and Sowa). Since academics can be classified as knowledge workers (Usher, 2002), this scale seemed most appropriate for this study. POS was measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from “Strongly Agree” to “Strongly Disagree”. The following is a sample item: “Seamount University strongly considers my goals and values”. There were no reversed items.

The Cronbach’s alpha coefficient reported in the South African study was 0.91. In this study, the Cronbach’s alpha for the full six items was 0.89.

Perceived External Reputation

The instrument used to measure this construct was adapted from one used in the context of a commercial organisation. In this commercial context, the items were based on Fortune’s AMAC Ranking, used to assess America’s Most Admired Companies (Helm, 2013). The author highlighted that the instrument integrated the different facets of reputation of relevance to a variety of stakeholders.

In this study, however, because the context is that of an academic institution, the instrument had to be changed accordingly. Wording had to be changed more significantly than in the case of the other three constructs, due to the nuances of the different context. Three of the eight items were not deemed to be relevant or meaningful to this study and were thus excluded. The

³⁵ Knowledge workers, a term coined by Drucker (1989), describes employees that hold knowledge as a powerful resource which they, rather than their organisation, own (Horwitz, Heng, & Quazi, 2003).

omitted items were “wise use of corporate assets”, “financial soundness”, and “long-term investment value”.

An example of a typical item, and the way it was adapted for this study is as follows:

“Quality of products/services” was changed to “Quality of Seamount University's research and teaching.” The question for the scale was phrased: “On a scale of 0 – 10, where 0 is Poor, and 10 is Excellent, how do you feel people *outside* Seamount University would rate it on the following attributes?” PER was thus measured on an 11-point scale ranging from 0 (poor) to 10 (excellent) – as operationalised by Helm (2013).

The Cronbach alpha for Helm’s 8-item scale was 0.93. The alpha coefficient for the adapted five-item scale used in this study was 0.83, indicating an acceptable level of internal consistency.

4.2.3.2. Open-Ended Questions

Two optional open-ended questions were added to the questionnaire, allowing survey respondents to add explanatory comments to their scores. These comments proved helpful in providing context to some of the results, as well as helping to guide the development of the interview protocol.

The first open-ended question dealt with the independent variable, PER. Particularly given that PER was a construct originally applied in a corporate context, I wanted to find out what lay behind the answers provided to the scale questions, in this (higher education) context. Therefore, the corresponding open-ended question at the end of the PER scale read as follows: “Optional: Please add any comments regarding how you feel people outside Seamount University view Seamount’s reputation.”

The second open-ended question, asked after the POS scales, was more general in nature, and pertained to “Working Environment”. This read as follows: “Optional: Please provide any comments you would like to add regarding your work environment.” This question was not limited to enquiring about organisational support since “organisational support” might be interpreted differently by different individuals. Furthermore, it would limit the responses to only whatever respondents considered to be classified as support. At this stage of the study, I

was interested to find out about current perceptions of the institution, specifically the work environment, more generally.

Having covered the content of the survey, the discussion now turns to: the survey instrument; the online channel through which it was administered; the survey design; and validity considerations.

4.2.4. Instrument: Self completion Online Survey

A cross-sectional, self-completion survey was the primary research instrument used in this study and the single source of data collection in Phase One. This section begins with an overview of the survey content, continues to review the benefits and challenges of the online channel through which the survey was administered, and then finally discusses the questionnaire design and survey validity threats.

Survey Overview

This study involved the collection of primarily interval scaled numerical data, some categorical data, as well as including a small qualitative data gathering component. These measures were discussed in the previous section. A self-completion online survey was utilised for gathering the data.

The survey comprised a welcome page, questions pertaining to the construct measures, open-ended questions, and questions related to the categorical data to be collected (i.e. question on gender, age, academic status, race/ethnicity and tenure). In terms of sequencing, the first survey module comprised the items pertaining to the construct, PER, since these questions seemed to be of a less personal nature. The intention was to begin with “non-threatening” questions and progress to questions of a more private nature, for example, “I would be happy to spend the rest of my career at Seamount University”. The section on demographics was placed near the end, before an invitation to partake in a follow up interview. Each new module began with the following instruction: “For each of the questions below, please indicate to what extent you disagree or agree with the statement. Please select only one answer for each statement.” The first open-ended question (of the two in total) was positioned after the first set of five questions pertaining to PER. The second open-ended question appeared after the POS module of questions.

After the survey questions, respondents were asked to provide an email address if they would be willing to be interviewed as part of the qualitative phase. Finally, a page that thanked the respondents for taking part in the survey was included at the end.

Online Self-Completion Surveys: Benefits and Challenges

Self-completion questionnaires have several benefits, namely lower associated costs, reduced speed, absence of interviewer bias, as well as convenience for respondents (Bryman, 2016). Self-reporting has been contended to be appropriate for perceptual variables (He et al., 2014). Utilising an online survey tool instead of a paper-based postal survey has similar benefits to those mentioned for self-completion questionnaires. Furthermore, because of the nature of the channel, responses do not need to be captured, thereby reducing the risk of data capturing error. Wegner (2016) suggested some additional advantages, including eliciting more honest answers from respondents where anonymity is assured, as well as more considered responses if they are willing to spend more time doing so.

However, there are several inherent challenges associated with online surveys, of which an important one is that of low response rates (Bryman, 2016; Wegner, 2016). While internet surveys have become an increasingly popular substitute to traditional survey channels, their response rates are usually lower than those of mail surveys (Miller & Dillman, 2011). According to Wegner (2016), people are less likely to volunteer their time completing the survey where there is no benefit to be derived.

In the case of this study, the benefit would at best be one of altruism. It was suggested, however, that one of the four key factors that motivate people to respond to internet surveys is the willingness to “contribute to research” (Bosnjak & Batinic, 2000). It is reasonable to believe that academics, due to their own commitment to research, would be motivated in this way. Furthermore, knowing from experience how difficult it is to gather data, they would be more likely to respond to a survey examining their own experiences.

Having decided that an online survey would be the most appropriate channel for this study, notwithstanding the challenges, I selected the anonymous option for collecting data, i.e. providing a web link, as opposed to sending the survey content in an email. Doing it this way meant that the source of individual responses could be not be traced.

Covering Letter

The survey link was sent via email with an embedded covering letter. Refer to Appendix H. The covering letter reassured prospective respondents that their responses would be anonymous. It briefly described the nature of the study, stated that participation was voluntary, and notified respondents that they could withdraw from the survey at any time. Furthermore, it provided an indication of the length of time that the survey could be expected to take.

Design of Online Survey

Once the pilot questionnaire was compiled, I created the online version using Survey Monkey software (<http://www.surveymonkey.com>). Survey Monkey is a well-established online survey software company, with good reviews from its users regarding support. I became a paying subscriber since the number of questions and responses exceeded the limit for their free service.

Dillman and Bowker (2000) cautioned that the impact of this type of survey on sampling, coverage, measurement and nonresponse error had to be carefully considered. Since non-probability sampling inherently has its own limitations in terms of generalisability, I had to consider coverage error so as not to exacerbate the issue. However, it was assumed that all academics invited to respond would have similar access to the internet, ensuring equal opportunity to respond. Measurement error comes about due to erroneous responses to ambiguous wording. This risk was addressed through extensive pilot testing of the survey. Finally, since non-response and response bias are critical weaknesses associated with all surveys (Baruch & Holtom, 2008), I adhered to several of the principles suggested by Dillman and Bowker (2000) to increase the number of responses:

- The online survey had a welcome screen, which displayed the institution's official logo, reassured respondents that the survey would take less than ten minutes, and emphasised both confidentiality and anonymity.
- The first question was designed to be interesting to most respondents. It was easy to answer and was completely visible on the first screen of the survey.
- Each question was presented in a format conventionally used on paper-based self-administered surveys.
- Only two open-ended questions were included.

Furthermore, in order to reduce the non-response risk specifically associated with incomplete responses and missing data, I ensured that the survey was very short, and could easily be completed within the time allocation promised. In addition, I added a progression indicator (i.e. what percent of the survey was already completed), as well as an automated rule that prevented the respondent from continuing with the next question in the survey if a question on the current page had not been answered. As advocated, every attempt was made to maximise the response rate through the careful design and short length of the survey (Baruch & Holtom, 2008). Increasing the contact frequency is usually also recommended to increase the response rates of online surveys (Nulty, 2008), although this has not been found to be consistently true (Baruch & Holtom, 2008). However, the policies of the institution's HR Department constrained the number of contact opportunities, and it was only permissible to send out one reminder to the target database. The wording for the reminder email can be found in Appendix I.

Survey Design Validity Threats

The survey design carries inherent threats to the internal validity of the results. Two of these are briefly discussed here:

- **Measurement validity:** This refers to the extent to which the scales used to measure the constructs indeed reflect what they are supposed to (Bryman, 2016). Three of the four key measures were based on well-established instruments. The scale for PER, however, has been modified significantly in the process of adapting it for a higher education context, and therefore potentially allowed room for some measurement error.
- **Non-response bias:** Since choosing to participate in the survey was a voluntary exercise, it is possible that the data provided by responders may well differ from the data that would have been obtained from non-responders. To minimise this type of bias, response rates must be maximised (Sivo, Saunders, Chang, & Jiang, 2006). To this end, I have already discussed my efforts to increase response rates through a carefully considered survey design and through sending a reminder email/survey link to increase the number of contacts with prospective participants. However, Blair and Zinkhan (2006, p. 5) argued that while we would like to minimise nonresponse as much as possible, “nonresponse is only one source of possible sample bias, and there are circumstances where a sample with higher nonresponse is the best available sample”. Furthermore, these authors pointed out that with respect to variations in

sample quality, academic research is “fairly robust” in terms of generalisability and “academic research can tolerate imperfect samples”. Two reasons were provided for this: “(1) academic research tends to study phenomena that are resistant to sampling bias, and (2) academic research has multiple paths to generalization” (p. 5).

4.2.5. Pilot Survey

Bryman (2016) advocated that it is always advisable to conduct a pilot study before sending out a survey. As the author suggested, it is especially important in the case of a self-completion questionnaire, since the interviewer would be unable to clarify any confusion at the time of the respondent completing the survey. Accordingly, I conducted a pilot study as follows. The survey link was initially distributed to three academics at my own institution, asking for feedback on what aspects they found confusing, as well as for suggestions for improvements. These were then considered, and the order of the questions was modified. Some of the scales were also adjusted to clarify their meaning and to make the scales more relevant to academics. (This was particularly important as some of the scales had been designed for corporate organisations, rather than for higher education institutions.)

Both the Meyer and Allen (1997) and KUT (Klein et al., 2012) AC scales were included in the original survey. However, the first pilot revealed that the four variables in the KUT scale for AC were found to be repetitive and “irritating”. Respondents saw no difference between the words “dedicated” and “committed”, and between “how committed are you to your organisation?” and “to what extent have you chosen to be committed to your organisation?”. I decided to forego using the KUT scale in favour of using only the well-established Meyer and Allen AC scale because I did not want the questionnaire to annoy respondents. I was also conscious of the survey’s length — in my efforts to keep it as short as possible.

The revised survey link was then sent to two academics from another local academic institution, and further minor refinements were made to the phrasing of some of the questions.

4.2.6. Survey Response Rates

The first email (including the survey link) yielded 87 responses (10.6%), too few to provide a feasible sample. Consequently, I applied for special permission to send the survey to the balance of the database. This was granted. Unfortunately, however, due to an error with the automated mailing list, the survey to the balance of the database only went out on a Friday evening, not the previous Wednesday afternoon, as had been planned. This was possibly the

reason for a lower than anticipated response rate compared with the first half. A further 63 responses (7.6%) were received from approaching the second half of the database.

Finally, after another special appeal to the Head of the HR department, I managed to obtain approval to send a once-off reminder to the entire sampling frame. This final effort had the effect of increasing my sample size by 43%, taking it up to 215 responses (an additional 65 responses were received from the reminder alone). No complaints were received from the potential respondents at any stage because of the survey.

Ultimately, the survey yielded 215 responses from the database of 1649 prospective respondents, i.e. an effective overall response rate of 13%. According to Baruch and Holtom (2008), notwithstanding that response rates are critical to the quality of a study, there are other more important aspects to consider, such as whether the respondents are “representative of the population being studied – that they are not systematically different in any meaningful way from the overall group” (p. 1153). While the response rate obtained in this study was lower than ideal in terms of avoiding non-response bias, at face value the demographic breakdown of the sample appeared reasonably diverse. According to Blair and Zinkhan (2006), sample diversity is desirable in terms of resistance to sample bias and generalisation. The adequacy of the sample size for the statistical techniques utilised in this study will be discussed in the analysis section. Suffice to say, it was deemed to be sufficient for the purposes of this study.

4.3. Phase One: Quantitative Data Analysis

The quantitative part of this study sought to test the conceptual model and related hypotheses that were formulated from the existing relevant theoretical frameworks as articulated in Chapter 2. Specifically, the statistical analysis investigated the direct and indirect effects of POS and PER on OID and AC, respectively, in the presence of each other. This section describes structural equation modelling, the multivariate technique utilised in this study; the data analysis strategy; how the data was prepared for analysis; and the steps involved in carrying out the various techniques.

4.3.1. Structural Equation Modelling and Terminology

Since the conceptual model in this study comprised more than one dependent and independent variable, a multivariate data technique had to be applied. Structural equation modelling

(SEM) was selected as the multivariate technique to be used in this study. SEM can be viewed as a confirmatory process, since it relies heavily on *a priori* theorising, i.e. the model needs to be provided at the outset. SEM tests to what extent the model is supported by the data (Kline, 2011). Importantly, it is a technique that allows a dependent variable in one relationship to become an independent variable in a subsequent relationship (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010), modelled simultaneously. SEM encompasses several multivariate techniques, including factor analysis and multiple regression analysis. It is ideally suited to assessing both measurement properties and to testing key theoretical relationships in one technique (Hair Jr. et al., 2010). Another important characteristic of SEM is its ability to incorporate latent variables, otherwise known as latent constructs, constructs, factors, or latent variables, into the analysis. These are hypothesised concepts measured indirectly through several observed variables, also referred to as manifest variables or indicators. The ability to analyse both observed variables and latent variables is a quality that differentiates SEM from the more standard multivariate techniques. Furthermore, SEM explicitly estimates residual variance or measurement error, overlooked in other techniques, which is also a unique feature (Kline, 2011).

There is some specific terminology relating to SEM, which will be referred to in this section. The main terms are defined below:

- **Measurement models and structural models:** The measurement model refers to the model that the researcher specifies to define the relationships between the factor/latent variable and the observed variables; in SEM, this is a confirmatory factor model. The researcher specifies a structural model that hypothesises how the latent variables are related to each other, with arrows indicating the hypothesised direction of the relationships (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010).
- **Exogenous and endogenous variables:** In SEM, latent, multi-item independent variables are referred to as “exogenous constructs”. In this study, PER and POS are the exogenous constructs. On the other hand, latent, multi-item dependent variables are referred to as “endogenous constructs”, and in this study, these are represented by OID and AC.

In this study, there were four constructs, related to each other, in the conceptual model that was derived from theory. One of these, namely OID, was specified as an endogenous construct in the model. However, using the language of regression, OID plays a dual role,

whereby it acts as both a predictor (of AC) and an outcome/criterion (of PER and POS). By “transmitting” the effects of PER and POS on AC, OID acts as a mediator variable, creating an indirect effect between PER and AC, as well as an indirect effect between POS and AC (Kline, 2011). Since PER and POS were also specified to directly affect AC, however, OID was expected to play a partial, not full mediation role between PER and AC, and simultaneously between POS and AC.

4.3.2. Quantitative Data Analysis Approach

This section provides an overview of the quantitative data analysis that was performed in this study. It describes data preparation; treatment of missing data; discusses the adequacy of the sample size; data screening; and the two-step approach to SEM.

4.3.2.1. Data Preparation

The raw data was imported from Survey Monkey into a Microsoft Office Excel spreadsheet. Each participant’s survey response was allocated a random identity from number 1 to number 215. Superfluous columns and rows were deleted, and only the question numbers (each pertaining to an individual item/indicator) appeared in the header row. Before exporting the data to SPSS Version 24.0 (IBM Corporation, 2016), the terms used in the Likert scales needed to be recoded. “Strongly Agree” was assigned a score of 5, “Agree” was assigned a score of 4, “Neutral” was assigned a score of 3, “Disagree” was assigned a score of 2, and “Strongly Disagree” was assigned a score of 1. Where reverse questions were asked, for example, “I do not feel like part of the family at [this institution]”, there was a need to code the answers differently, and the scoring system was reversed accordingly. In this case “Strongly Agree” was assigned a score of 1, “Agree” was assigned a score of 2, “Neutral” remained 3, “Disagree” was assigned a score of 4, and “Strongly Disagree” was assigned a score of 5.

4.3.2.2. Treatment of Missing Data

Missing data was closely inspected. 96% of the respondents (n = 207) completed all the compulsory questions but two of these did not provide any demographic information. Therefore, in total, 95% (n = 205) completed the survey in its entirety. The survey was set up so that a respondent could not continue if the required questions were not answered. Four respondents abandoned the survey from question 7, one from question 18, two from question

31 and one from question 37. Two respondents provided all the survey answers but not the demographic data.

Hair Jr. et al. (2010) suggested that variables with as little as 15% missing data are candidates for deletion while variables or cases with 50% or more missing data should “obviously” be deleted (p. 48). Four of the respondents were missing more than 50% of the data, so these were excluded from further analysis. Hair Jr. et al. (2010) also argued that cases with missing data for dependent variable(s) should be deleted to prevent any “artificial increase in relationships with independent variables” (p. 48). Since the other four of the respondents with missing data did not answer questions pertaining to AC, one of the dependent variables, these were dropped too. Although there are more sophisticated ways in dealing with missing data, for example, multiple imputation, these methods were not considered since there were relatively few missing cases. Deleting individual incomplete cases is the simplest remedy, provided that the consequent reduction in sample size is not problematic (Hair et al., 2010).

4.3.2.3. Sample Size

There are different views on what constitutes the minimum sample size for conducting SEM analysis. In 1995, Ding, Velicer, and Harlow (as cited in Schumacker & Lomax, 2010), having considered several studies, concluded that 100 to 150 cases was the minimum acceptable sample size for performing SEM analysis. Schumacker and Lomax (2010) also recalled a rule of thumb from statistical text books suggesting that 10 subjects per (observed) variable would suffice. Applying the rule to this study, a minimum of 190 subjects would be required given that there were 19 observed variables (after confirmatory factor analysis was conducted). Accordingly, the sample size of 215 would be acceptable.

Hair Jr. et al. (2010, p. 662) suggested a minimum sample size of 150 applies to “models with seven or fewer constructs, modest commonalities (.5), and no under identified constructs”. This study comprised four constructs, each with more than three indicators. For the most part, there were modest commonalities, although there were a few items where the squared multiple correlations were below 0.5. Overall therefore, albeit that the sample size of 215 was slightly lower than optimal, it was deemed acceptable for proceeding with SEM analysis.

4.3.2.4. Data Screening: Outliers, Linearity and Nonnormality

Histograms, box-plots and normal Q-Q plots were produced using SPSS version 24.0 (IBM Corporation, 2016). These were visually inspected for outliers, linearity, and for nonnormality. Outliers are data values that are extreme (on either dependent or independent variables) and can affect the mean, the standard deviation, and the correlation coefficient values (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). Furthermore, SEM assumes that variables are related to each other in a linear fashion. By inspecting bivariate scatterplots, the researcher can ascertain whether coordinate pairs of data points are linearly related. Finally, the data must be screened for nonnormality since inferential statistics mostly rely on the assumption that data are distributed normally. Outliers can be deleted, while linearity and nonnormality issues can be dealt with by transformations, bootstrapping, normalising scores, or using alternative estimation methods (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010).

A visual inspection of the histograms, box-plots and normal Q-Q plots in this study showed that there were a few outliers, but they were not deemed to be problematic. The visual inspection also showed lack of symmetry (skewness), and/or peakedness (kurtosis), indicating nonnormality for most of the items. (Appendix J displays histograms, box-plots and normal Q-Q plots for each item.) To address the items' nonnormality, the Robust Maximum Likelihood estimator technique was used to perform the SEM analysis. This technique is known to be robust to deviations from normality, and therefore has been frequently used in confirmatory factor analysis models when continuous observed variables deviate slightly or moderately from normality (Li, 2016).

4.3.2.5. Two-step Approach to Structural Equation Modelling

According to Schumacker and Lomax (2010), it is prudent to first test the measurement model for each latent variable. Establishing the measurement integrity of the measurement model is considered an important preliminary step in building the structural model. The linkages between the latent variables in the structural model will remain ambiguous if the construct validity of the measurement models is not established initially. If necessary, the measurement model should be modified to improve the model fit, before testing the structural model.

This was the approach taken in this study. Only once each of the individual measurement models was modified, if necessary, to look reasonable, were the relationships between the

latent variables tested, i.e. the structural model was estimated. The next section discusses how to assess the fit of the models.

4.3.3. Model-Fit Criteria

In assessing the measurement models and the structural model, SEM is concerned with how well estimated model fits the observed data. Once the model is estimated, the similarity of the estimated covariance matrix is compared with the observed covariance matrix, resulting in what is referred to as “goodness-of-fit” values (Hair et al., 2010).

Schumacker and Lomax (2010) mention three criteria that are typically used to assess the statistical significance and “substantive meaning” of a theoretical model:

Firstly, the non-significance of the chi-square test is considered: Where researchers usually strive to prove statistical significance, in this case when the model indicates a non-significant chi-square test, the exact-fit null hypothesis will not be rejected (Kline, 2011). However, Hair Jr. et al. (2010) pointed out that this statistic needs to be used with caution since it is sensitive to sample size bias, and that although it should always be reported, it should be used in conjunction with other fit indices.

Secondly, Schumacker and Lomax (2010) stated that the individual parameter estimates for the paths in the model should be statistically significant. Referred to as a t value, it is usually compared to a (two-tailed) tabled t value of 1.96 at the 0.5 level of significance.

Thirdly, the model is assessed from a theoretical perspective to ascertain whether the signs and magnitudes of the respective coefficients were “theoretically sensible” (Laura Klem, 2000).

In addition to the chi-square test, and the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), several alternative fit indices are available to the researcher. Schumacker and Lomax (2010) recommend considering various model-fit criteria in combination. In this study, a basket of relevant indices (including chi-square test, and the RMSEA) were used to assess the overall model fit.

Table 8 shows these criteria and summarises the corresponding guidelines that were considered when assessing the fit of the measurement and structural models in this study.

Table 8 Model-Fit Criteria

Model-Fit Criterion	Guidelines for Establishing Acceptable Fit
Chi-Square (χ^2) Test of Model Fit	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tabled χ^2 value; not statistically significant ^a • Sample size <250; between 12 and 30 observed variables: expect significant p-value ^b
RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 0.05–0.08 ^a • Sample size <250; between 12 and 30 observed variables: values < .08 with CFI of 0.95 or higher ^b
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sample size <250; between 12 and 30 observed variables: 0.95 or better ^b
Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Value close to 0.90 or 0.95 reflects good model fit ^a • Sample size <250; between 12 and 30 observed variables: 0.95 or better ^b
Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Value <0.05 indicates good model fit ^a • Sample size <250; between 12 and 30 observed variables: Values <0.08 with CFI of 0.95 or higher ^b

Sources: ^a Schumacker & Lomax, 2010; ^b Hair Jr. et al., 2010

The next two sections discuss the study's confirmatory factor analysis and analysis of the structural model, respectively.

4.3.4. Confirmatory Factor Analysis

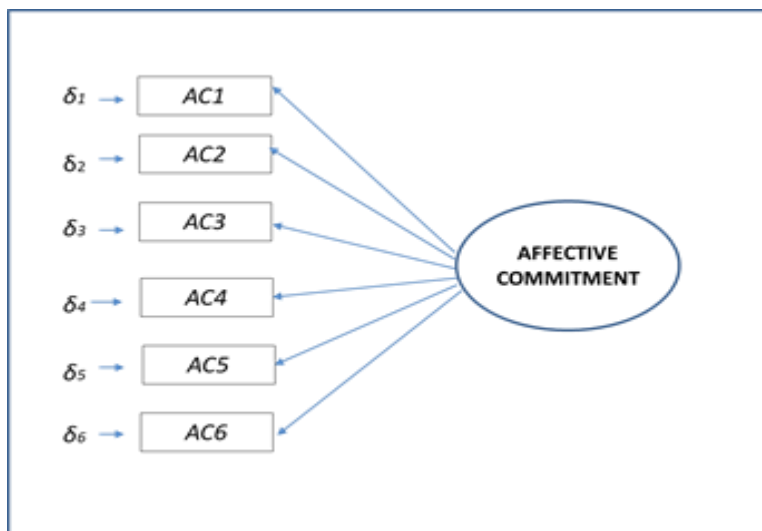
According to the two-step approach, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using MPlus, Version 7.31 (Muthén & Muthén, 2014) statistical software, was first carried out for each of the four constructs, before estimating the structural model. The four measurement models were individually modified where necessary, and the revised measures, where applicable, were used for the estimation of the structural model.

4.3.4.1. Model Specification

CFA refers to a “factor analysis technique in which the goal is to test theory and confirm predictions” (Wilson & MacLean, 2011, p. 674). *A priori* measures used to measure all four

latent constructs were assessed for validity. Using the construct of AC as an example, the SEM model specified for CFA is depicted in the path diagram, Figure 11.

Figure 11 Affective Commitment Measurement Model Path Diagram



The six observed variables or indicators are represented in the rectangles in Figure 11 and the latent variable (AC in this case) is represented by the oval. The relationship between each indicator and AC, i.e. the factor loading, is represented by arrows directed at the indicators. The measurement error associated with each relationship is represented by the symbol “ δ ”.

4.3.4.2. Model Identification

Before proceeding from model specification to model estimation, a model needs to be identified. Kline (2011) defines an identified model “if it is *theoretically* possible for the computer to derive a unique estimate of every model parameter” (p. 93 emphasis in original). The author asserted that models that are not identified must be re-specified or efforts to analyse them could be futile. Two essential conditions for identification are: “the model degrees of freedom must be at least zero ($df_M \geq 0$)”; and “every latent variable (including the residual terms) must be assigned a scale (metric)” (Kline, 2011, p. 124).

A model where degrees of freedom are equal to zero, is considered “just-identified”, whereas a model with positive degrees of freedom is considered “over-identified”. Where a model has less than zero degrees of freedom, it is considered “under-identified”. It is not possible to uniquely estimate all the parameters of an under-identified model (Kline, 2011), which is problematic in terms of proceeding with the estimation of the structural model.

Both essential conditions for identification were met in all four of the measurement models in this study. The degrees of freedom were positive for each of the models, and therefore all the models were over-identified.

Meeting both these conditions, however, does not suffice to assure the researcher that a CFA model is identified. If a “standard” CFA model – i.e. a model where “every indicator loads onto just one factor and there are no measurement error correlations” (Kline, 2011, p. 137) – comprises a single factor, and has three or more indicators, it is identified. In this study, each of the CFA models comprised a single factor with at least three indicators.

4.3.4.3. Confirmatory Factor Analysis Model Fit

Assessment of model fit was done using the guidelines for goodness-of-fit indices, which were presented in Table 8 in the previous section. This was done before and after removing problematic indicators that were detected during the CFA process. This is discussed next.

4.3.4.4. Model Parameters

The confirmatory factor analyses of the four measurement models in this study produced factor loadings for each item and its respective latent variable, indicating how well the latent variable loads onto the item. A *p*-value is associated with each factor loading, indicating the significance of the relationship between the indicator and its respective latent variable.

Non-significant factor loadings

The CFA identified some problematic items due to factor loadings being statistically insignificant. This affected two of the four constructs, namely AC and POS. The problematic items were removed and details of this are provided in the quantitative results section.

4.3.4.5. Confirmatory Factor Analysis: Validity and Reliability

This section focuses on the role CFA plays when dealing with issues of validity and reliability to reduce what is referred to as “measurement error” in statistical analysis. This is the degree to which the manifest variable values are not a true representation of what the values are (Hair et al., 2010). “All variables used in multivariate techniques must be assumed to have some degree of measurement error” (Hair et al., 2010, p. 7), causing correlations to weaken and resulting in less precise means.

Construct validity refers to “the extent to which a set of measured items actually reflects the theoretical latent construct those items are designed to measure” (Hair et al., 2010, p. 708). CFA assesses the construct validity of the hypothesised measurement theory. An important part of construct validity is convergent validity, meaning that the indicators of a given construct should share a high proportion of variance in common. Each factor loading needs to be statistically significant at a minimum, and preferably >0.5 in size (Hair et al., 2010). The factor loadings pertaining to each construct in this study were mostly above 0.5 with a couple of exceptions that are reported on in the results.

Reliability refers to the stability or internal consistency of a measure (Wilson & MacLean, 2011). The aim of checking for reliability is again to reduce measurement error’, i.e. the extent to which a measurement device differs from the true score value. Cronbach’s alpha coefficients were used to assess the internal consistency of the measures used in this study. The alpha coefficient ranges from 0–1 where values of above 0.7 are deemed to be acceptable (Hair et al, 2010). On the other hand, Bryman (2016) posited that the numeral 0.8 is generally used as a rule of thumb to indicate an acceptable level of internal consistency, but conceded that many researchers work with a slightly lower figure. After conducting CFA for each construct in the study, three of the four constructs had Cronbach’s alpha coefficients that exceeded 0.8, and one had a value of 0.77, which was considered satisfactory.

The next section discusses the structural model assessment.

4.3.5. Structural Model Assessment

The model in this study was estimated using MPlus Version 7.31 (Muthén & Muthén, 2014). A covariance/variance matrix is generated from the observed data, constituting the data input into the model. Mathematically, the basic idea of a SEM program is to estimate parameters that will reproduce the matrix of observed relationships as closely as possible (Klem, 2000). When assessing a structural model, “emphasis is placed on the estimated parameters for the structural relationships, because they provide direct empirical evidence relating to the hypothesized relationships depicted in the structural model” (Hair et al., 2010, p. 675).

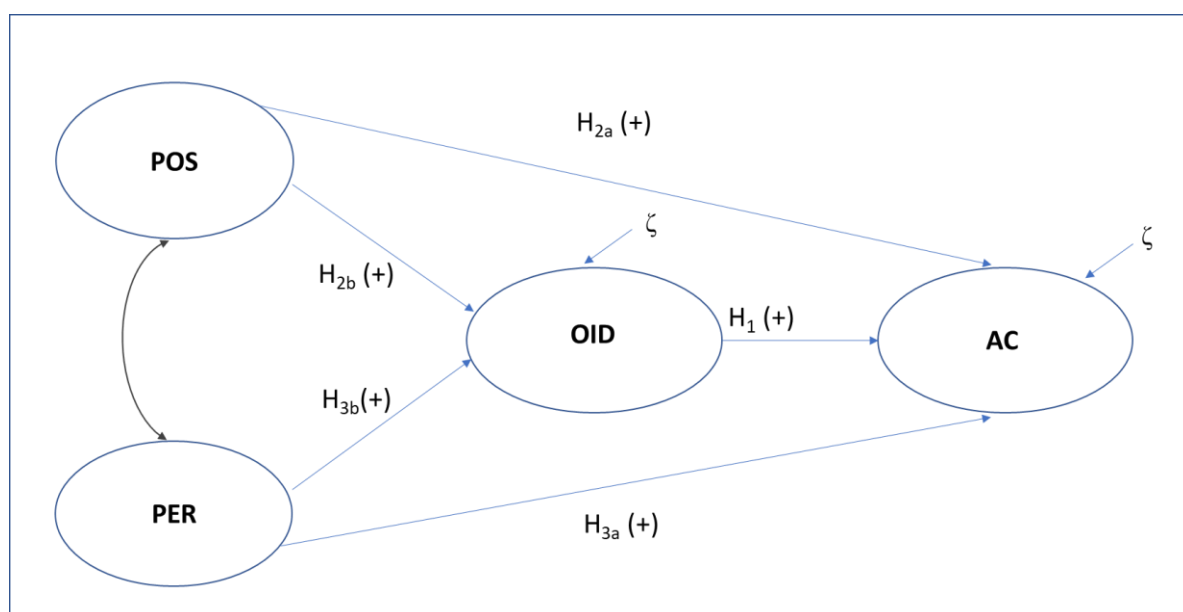
When conducting SEM, a few steps need to take place (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010): Firstly, the model must be specified using theoretical knowledge to formulate hypotheses. Secondly, the model must be checked for identification (i.e. whether there is a unique solution for each parameter in the model) and statistical reasonableness of the parameters (Klem, 2000).

Thereafter, the model is estimated, and model-fit indices are produced, which need to be reviewed in case the model is required to be modified.

4.3.5.1. Model Specification

In this study, the structural model that was specified can be represented by the path diagram depicted in Figure 12. Please note that the paths associated with each construct and their respective items, have been excluded in this diagram for the sake of clarity and conciseness. (The path diagrams for the measurement models were discussed previously.)

Figure 12 Structural Model Path Diagram



The hypothesised relationships between the latent variables are indicated with directional arrows pointing at the respective variables. The curved arrow between POS and PER represents the non-directional association between them.

4.3.5.2. Model Fit Criteria

Once the structural model was estimated, the guidelines for good model fit were applied to assess the fit of the model. Based on the basket of indices used for the assessment, the fit was deemed satisfactory.

4.3.5.3. Model Parameters

Standardised beta-coefficients, measurement errors, and p-values were estimated for each of the paths that were specified between the latent variables. Direct, specific indirect, and total

effects were estimated for the structural model. The variance (R^2) that the model explained in each of the endogenous latent variables, namely OID and AC, was provided.

4.3.5.4. A Note about Causality

Although SEM can be used to determine causal relationships between variables, this study does not allow for arriving at conclusions of causality. The main conditions for causality include (Hair et al., 2010; Kline, 2011):

- theoretical support (justification for the relationship);
- association/covariation (an observed covariation between the two variables being tested);
- sequence/temporal precedence (evidence that the cause occurs before the effect); and
- isolation/nonspurious covariance (lack of alternative plausible explanations).

Although the first two conditions are assumed to be met in this study, the second two criteria cannot be assumed. This is because of the cross-sectional research design, but more significantly, since both affective organisational commitment and organisational identification have been found to have numerous other distal and proximal antecedents.

This concludes the quantitative data analysis approach that was taken in this study. The next section discusses the data analysis of the embedded qualitative component of the survey.

4.4. Phase One: Embedded Qualitative Data Analysis

This section discusses the analysis of the answers to the open-ended questions that were included in the online self-report survey. There were 215 survey respondents, out of which 76 (35%) added comments related to the first open-ended question, and 82 (38%) added comments pertaining to the second open-ended question.

Principles of content analysis were used to analyse the qualitative answers. Content analysis is defined as a method to analyse documents or texts by quantifying content in terms of set categories, established in advance, in a methodical and replicable way. (Bryman, 2016). It is commonly used to analyse media content.

Having familiarised myself with the data, I identified common categories or themes, developed a coding scheme, and then counted the number of comments associated with each code. ATLAS.ti version 8.0.43 (Friesen, 2017) computer software was used to code the

responses. The codes and associated data were then transferred into a Microsoft Office Excel spreadsheet, for counting responses and working out percentages.

However, where content analysis generally does not allow overlapping categories — instead insisting on mutually exclusive categories — I observed some nuances when analysing the results of the open-ended question about PER, which seemed to necessitate parallel coding. To clarify using a specific example: several respondents made comments about the impact of the “#FeesMustFall” (FMF) student protests on the institution’s reputation; however, a subset of these respondents made comments suggesting that it was not the issue of FMF per se that had an impact, but rather management’s handling of the protests. In other words, they criticised management’s response to the protests, suggesting that any harm to the organisational reputation was directly related to that, rather than simply due to the protests itself. Albeit closely related, I wanted to quantify these separately, so it would have been impossible to create mutually exclusive categories in this case. On the other hand, the answers to the second open-ended question, namely the one about “work experience”, were more diverse, so I could apply the mutual exclusivity principle of content analysis more easily with those responses. In this case, I clustered the data according to tightly defined, mutually exclusive categories/themes.

The next section discusses the interim phase of the explanatory, sequential mixed methods design, i.e. the phase that connects Phase One to Phase Two.

4.5. Interim Phase: Connecting Phases One and Two

As discussed under the section on Mixed Methods, an explanatory sequential mixed methods design entails a “connecting” step (refer Figure 10) where the results from Phase One informs both the selection of the sample for the qualitative strand, as well as interview protocol development. This section on qualitative data collection will describe this connecting step by reviewing the selection of participants to interview, as well the development of the interview protocol. It will then proceed to discuss the pilot study, the subsequent interview process, and the steps involved in preparing the data for analysis.

4.5.1. Sampling Approach

Sample Selection

The quantitative online survey had included a request at the end that asked respondents to provide their email addresses if they were willing to be interviewed in the qualitative phase of the study. Forty-four of the 215 respondents, i.e. 20% of respondents, provided their email addresses. These forty-four volunteers provided the available “pool” of possible interviewees, and the database from which I could select my sample.

The sampling method used in this part of the study is that of a non-probability, purposive sampling method. Non-probability sampling methods are typically used in qualitative research, where the researcher is interested in studying units with distinct features, and therefore selects participants for deliberate reasons (Jane Ritchie, Lewis, Elam, Tennant, & Rahim, 2014). The goal of purposive sampling (a form of non-probability sampling) is to strategically sample cases so that the participants are relevant to the research questions being addressed (Bryman, 2016).

My non-probability sample was purposively selected according to three criteria:

- Survey respondents had provided their email addresses for a follow-up interview
- Value of the AC (dependent variable) overall mean score
- Demographic characteristics

Concerning the last two criteria, the selection of participants was based on the “maximal variation sampling strategy” (Ivankova et al., 2006) to ensure the gathering of multiple perspectives. King and Horrocks (2010) argued that diversity is the most commonly used criterion for qualitative research sampling. In this study, the diversity comprised:

- a range of AC overall mean scores were to be selected, varying from extremely low to extremely high scores, and calculated around the mean score of 3.43; and
- maximum diversity in terms of age, tenure, academic position and gender.

The profile of the final qualitative sample can be found in Appendix K. Finally, although not reflected in the appendix, the following four faculties were well, albeit not equally, represented: Humanities, Commerce, Engineering, and Health Sciences.

Sample Size

Alongside decisions regarding the sample profile is that of the sample size. Although there are no “rules” for the correct sample size for qualitative research, Trotter (2012) argued that, ideally, the researcher should continue to interview until redundancy or saturation takes place. The author defines redundancy as “the process of sequentially conducting interviews until all concepts are repeated multiple times without new concepts or themes emerging” (Trotter, 2012, p. 399), and saturation as “a point at which all questions have been thoroughly explored in detail, no new concepts or themes emerge in subsequent interviews” (p. 399). According to Guest, Bunce, and Johnson (2006), data saturation is reached at “the point in data collection and analysis when new information produces little or no change to the codebook” (p. 65). These authors were seeking to establish how many semi-structured interviews could be considered sufficient to achieve data saturation. They found that 80% of their codes were created from the first six interviews, and 92% after a further six. Therefore, within twelve interviews, they had found almost all their codes. This finding provided me with an initial benchmark.

Cleary, Horsfall and Hayter (2014) argued that an experienced interviewer, using a well-defined research topic, can produce highly relevant data for analysis when interviewing a small number of carefully selected homogeneous participants, especially if they have experience of or suitable exposure to the phenomenon being studied. Applying this thinking to the study at hand, one could argue that the faculty of one institution could be considered a reasonably homogenous group, and that participants were asked about their own experiences with clearly defined research questions — thereby suggesting that a “small number” of participants may produce highly relevant data. Accordingly, it seemed unnecessary to approach all forty-four of the respondents who had volunteered their email addresses. After interrogating the list of potential interviewees, together with their corresponding data (including their individual AC overall mean scores), a list was compiled comprising a subset of “ideal” prospective interviewees. The list included respondents that were diverse in terms of scores and demographics. The flexible target was to interview between twelve to fifteen respondents with a view to increasing the number if I recognised that sufficient redundancy or saturation had not been reached after fifteen interviews.

After the first ten interviews, I began to encounter fewer new ideas, and by the end of fifteen interviews, it seemed that sufficient data saturation had been accomplished since few new

ideas were emerging. Moreover, after the fifteen interviews, the requisite insights that could help answer the research questions had become clearer.

4.5.2. Developing the Interview Protocol

The “connecting” phase of an explanatory sequential mixed methods design entails that the results of the quantitative component assists in informing the development of the interview protocol, as mentioned previously. Based on the quantitative data analysis, the following anomalies were of interest:

- While the value of the AC overall mean score was fair, that of POS (one of the two independent variables generally highly correlated to AC) had a very low overall mean score.
- Whereas in the literature, PER or Prestige tended to be positively associated with OID, and in turn AC, it was not the case in this study.

Asking what I needed to learn to be able to address these anomalies (Bryman, 2016), the following guideline questions emerged and informed the interview protocol:

- How do academics understand affective organisational commitment? What does it mean to them?
- What does their organisational membership mean to them?
- Why did so few academics allocate a low score to the items related to outsider criticism? In other words, why the indifference?
- Does PER matter to academics?
- Why does PER not seem to affect OID and AC?
- Why did POS receive such a low overall score?

The embedded qualitative component in Phase One also played a role in connecting the two phases, in that it provided context that was helpful when developing the interview protocol. The content analysis highlighted many unhappy work experiences and provided insight regarding the impact of the FMF student protests. As can be seen in the interview protocol (refer Appendix L), questions related to these aspects were included.

4.6. Phase Two: Qualitative Data Collection

4.6.1. Pilot Interview

It is advisable to “dry run” every stage of one’s research procedures to ensure that the data generated will serve the designed purpose (Bazeley, 2013). I began my qualitative research by conducting a pilot interview with a colleague. The first practical benefit was to become more comfortable with using my two recording devices, namely my mobile phone, and a small digital voice recorder. More importantly, the pilot interview helped with achieving a smoother “flow”, as well as in working out how to start the conversation in a more relaxed way. Instead of leading directly into the PER-related questions, I began more casually by asking participants about their tenure at the institution, and how they were enjoying it. I also made minor adjustments to the phrasing of some of the questions for the sake of clarification, for example, asking, “what outsiders think of the university” instead of using the term, “perceived external reputation”. Moreover, it was because of the pilot experience that I decided to laminate an A4 handout of the five dimensions of reputation to assist participants when discussing each of the dimensions. This had the added benefit of bringing awareness to the broader application of the term “reputation”, rather than simply referring to its more traditional usage based almost exclusively on “institution rankings”. This handout can be referred to in Appendix M.

While pilot material often gets discarded, Bazeley (2013) makes the point that pilot data can still be valuable in qualitative research. Indeed, there were components of the pilot interview that remained valuable in the final analysis of this study. As a useful exercise, I wrote up a “mock analysis” of the pilot interview to assist in me identifying early insights, any gaps or omissions that I needed to fill, and to gain a sense of whether I was going to be able to answer my research question with the kind of responses the pilot provided.

4.6.2. Recruiting Participants

As mentioned previously, I created a target list of prospective participants based on the specific criteria. Appendix N shows the email that I sent to the selected survey respondents to invite them to participate in an interview. Initially, I only sent out a batch of four invites to prospective participants from the target list, to allow me time to become familiar with the contents of each interview before proceeding with the next one. In the beginning of the interviewing process, I was able to secure an interview with every prospective participant who

I had solicited via email. However, the interview process was spread out over a couple of months, and as the time moved further away from when I had sent out my online survey, some of the prospective interviewees were no longer available to be interviewed. Notwithstanding this, I had access to more suitable candidates than I needed and would simply go to another name on the list that still ensured the maximal variation or sample diversity.

4.6.3. Semi-Structured Interviews: Logistics

This section covers topics such as the format and duration of the interview, the location of the interviews, and the recording of the data.

Format of the Interview

Considered to be a “default” option when conducting qualitative interviews (King & Brooks, 2017), the **individual face-to-face** interview format was my preferred option due to the personal nature of the inquiry. However, there were three instances where, due to logistical constraints, the “face-to-face” interview took place over Skype³⁶ calls. In each instance both the participant and I used a webcam so that we could view each other. In two of the Skype interviews I believe that my rapport with the interviewees was on a par with a “regular” face-to-face interview, but I sensed a slight psychological distance with the third one.

Interview Location

Bryman (2016) recommended that interviews should take place in a quiet and private setting. Most of the other (non-Skype) interviews were held in the participants’ offices, except for three. One was held in a coffee shop, one in a meeting room, and another in an available neutral office. The coffee shop was predictably the most challenging setting, in terms of background noise, distractions and lack of privacy. It seemed to me that the participants interviewed in their own offices, were relatively more relaxed during their interviews than the other three interviewees. I had little control over the seating arrangements, but wherever possible tried to have a more informal arrangement, preferably not facing the interviewee across a desk (King & Horrocks, 2010).

³⁶

Skype is a software application that facilitates telephone calls over the internet.

Interview Materials

I used two laminated A4 printed pages during the interview. The one was an “informed consent form” – refer to Appendix O. The second contained the five dimensions of reputation that was handed over to the respondent at the relevant point in the interview.

Recording and Note-taking

After asking for the participant’s permission, I recorded every interview, and used two devices, one being a small digital device that enabled my audio file to be directly downloaded onto my computer afterwards, and another being my mobile phone, primarily as a back-up. Furthermore, I took occasional notes of points of interest that I wanted to follow up on later in the interview, as well as reminders to pursue ideas triggered during the interview at a later stage.

Duration of the Interview

The interview was designed to take between 30–45 minutes. Most of the interviews lasted approximately 45 minutes. In a few instances, the interview was completed in only 30 minutes, whereas a couple took approximately an hour to complete.

4.6.4. Conducting the Interview

This section discusses building rapport with the interviewees, the content of the interviews, and how the interviews were ended.

Building Rapport

Establishing rapport with a participant is arguably the most important factor in conducting a successful interview; it is essential to build trust before asking personal and potentially sensitive questions (King & Horrocks, 2010). Leedy and Ormrod (2010) recommended starting an interview with “small talk” to create a more relaxed environment. Before each interview, I undertook some online background research on the interviewee, so that I had a sense of what interested them, and what they had achieved. At times, I began a conversation by alluding to some interesting fact about the participant, for example, “I see you’ve done a lot of research in area X, which sounds fascinating”. However, I sometimes found that approach too time-consuming, and preferred to talk about their length of service at the institution since that was more directly linked to my research topic. I also practiced my active listening skills, striving to stay neutral about sensitive issues, be empathetic at all times, and

stay open to new ideas (Bryman, 2016). In addition to the guideline questions, the interview protocol in Appendix K also shows how I established rapport at the beginning of the interview and dealt with the formalities.

Evolution of the Interview Protocol

The guideline questions were articulated in full sentences in the interview protocol. This can provide a challenge to flexibility, but at least ensures that the questions have been well formulated, for example, to avoid asking leading questions due to incorrect phrasing (King & Horrocks, 2010). Contrary to using the identical interview protocol throughout the data collection process, King and Horrocks (2010) suggested that researchers rather be encouraged to refine the protocol as they gather insights from initial interviews. These authors further pointed out that interviewers need to be flexible in their approach to interviewing, by responding to issues that arise unexpectedly in the conversation, and by changing the sequence of the questions in the guideline if necessary. After the first couple of interviews, and as I became more comfortable with my protocol, this approach became easier to take.

Probing

In order to elicit the data I needed from the qualitative interviews, it was at times essential to ask indirect questions that would assist with my understanding of how the key constructs manifested in the context of this study. This section describes how I set about this for each key construct.

Affective Commitment

For the purposes of understanding “AC Enablers” and “AC Blockers”, I asked the participants questions about their “likes” and “dislikes” of working at the institution, since it is difficult to directly ask questions about AC. It was necessary to improvise during the interview, and at times I extended the questions along the lines of “what would make you want to leave or stay?”. This was pertinent because the AC construct comprised the following item in its measure: “I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career at Seamount University.” If, from the conversation, commitment appeared to have changed over time, I would enquire about any perceived shifts in the participant’s work experience or work environment over that period.

Organisational Identification

The survey measures of the OID construct comprised items pertaining to how respondents respond to outsider criticism. These included the following two items:

- “When someone criticises Seamount University, it feels like a personal insult”; and
- “If a story in the media criticises Seamount University, I feel embarrassed”.

The scores for those that either “strongly disagreed”, “disagreed”, or were “neutral”, were cumulatively 55% and 66% respectively. This suggests a degree of detachment regarding outsiders’ criticism. Considering this result, I asked the following questions: “How do you feel when outsiders or the media insult or criticise [name of institution]?”, and a further question, “My survey results indicated that a large percentage of the faculty don’t seem to take it personally when the media or any other outsiders criticise [name of institution]. What are your thoughts about this result?”

Perceived Organisational Support

The POS measures included items such as “Seamount University values my contribution to its reputation and success” and “Seamount University cares for my well-being”. I wanted to understand why the scores were so low. I was careful to ask a neutral question, however, which was “How would you describe the support you get from Seamount University?” Thereafter, I probed further if deemed necessary, to find out why support was so poorly perceived in the survey results, sharing the said result and asking whether the participant could explain the findings.

At the outset of my qualitative analysis, I had established two *a priori* categories related to POS, called “negative POS” and “positive POS”. However, based on both the quantitative and qualitative feedback, I changed these categories to “satisfied/not dissatisfied” and “dissatisfied. This is because, firstly, there were not many positive perceptions of organisational support, and secondly, many of the participants that seemed not to be “dissatisfied” with the perceived support, were not necessarily satisfied either.

Perceived External Reputation

In order to assist with investigating how important the different dimensions of PER were to the participants, a laminated handout (mentioned previously) was provided during the interview, listing the five dimensions of reputation corresponding to the measures that were used in the quantitative survey. Interviewees were referred to the handout and asked to select

which of the five dimensions of reputation they perceived to be of importance to themselves as academics.

Ending the interview

At the end of each interview, I would ask the participant if they had anything to add or whether they to ask any questions. I would then thank them for their time and ask whether they would be interested in receiving a report of the findings. After every interview, I sent a personal email one day later, to again thank the participant. I also used this opportunity obtain any clarification or further information if it was needed.

4.6.5. Preparing the Qualitative Data for Analysis

All the interviews, except one (where I had made extensive notes instead), had been successfully recorded on my digital device, and the audio files were downloaded onto my computer. The recording quality was generally excellent. I would ensure that I listened to each interview within a day or two, while it was still fresh in my mind. One or two interviews were extremely lengthy, and at times deviated considerably from the topic. I would then briefly paraphrase what I considered not to be relevant and transcribe only the portions that were of interest in terms of answering the research question.

Transcriptions should endeavor to be as true as possible to the conversation taking place, minimising loss of emotional nuances, for example (Bazeley, 2013). Adhering to Bazeley's (2013) guidelines, I retained words like "uhm" and the repetition of words or sentences, recorded laughter or interruptions, and did not correct any grammar. On completion of the transcript, I would listen to the recording again, compare it with the transcript to check the accuracy of the transcription, and familiarise myself with the data once more. Once all the transcripts, notes and summaries were complete, I loaded both the Word documents and the audio files onto NVivo 11 Pro for Windows computer software (QSR International, 2017), for storage and data management. In addition, I produced a Microsoft Office Excel file linking the recording numbers with the names of the participants, and dates of the interviews. This was strictly for my records only and was kept separately from the data for privacy reasons.

Data Collection Validity

As a preliminary validity check, I asked one of the participants to check the transcript from her interview for accuracy. I chose the lengthiest transcript to review. The interviewee

concerned reviewed the transcript, detected and corrected some spelling errors, but otherwise confirmed that our interview had been accurately captured.

This concludes the section on Phase Two qualitative data collection. The next section discusses Phase Two qualitative data analysis.

4.7. Phase Two: Qualitative Data Analysis

The purpose of my qualitative analysis was to gain insight into the interviewee's personal meanings, contextual and situational factors (Spencer, Ritchie, O'Connor, & Barnard, 2014), which would help me to understand the results arrived at through the quantitative analysis.

The approach for my qualitative analysis falls under the umbrella of what is referred to as 'thematic analysis'. According to Spencer et al. (2014), this approach moves from generating descriptive data-driven codes to themes that are more abstract, possibly offering explanation. However, there are many ways to conduct thematic analysis, and I have used a slightly modified version of an approach referred to as 'Template Analysis' (TA).

King and Brooks (2017) describe TA as a technique that evolved within the broader tradition of thematic analysis and suggested that it is a generic form of this kind of analysis, not associated with any one methodological approach and underpinning philosophical worldview. Being a technique that balances both structure and flexibility in analyzing qualitative data, it has been particularly favoured by those doing studies in real-world settings (King & Brooks, 2017). This approach was therefore well aligned to my worldview of pragmatism.

4.7.1. Template Analysis as a Form of Thematic Analysis

King and Brooks (2017) summarised how TA can be distinguished from other forms of thematic analysis in the following points:

- TA emphasises the use of hierarchical coding, effectively promoting greater depth of coding than most of the other approaches.
- It allows the development of an initial coding template to be based on a subset of the data, rather than the full data set.
- It offers flexibility regarding the sequence of coding levels, in that these are not prescribed in advance.
- TA refutes the need to differentiate between descriptive and interpretative themes unless the researchers believe it is necessary to do so.

A theme can be described as “recurrent and distinctive features of participants’ accounts, characterizing particular perceptions and/or experiences, which the researcher sees as relevant to the research question” (King & Horrocks, 2010, p. 150). Hierarchical coding means that codes are organised in a way that produces themes and related sub-themes. Further, while it is not compulsory in TA, this methodology allows the researcher to make use of *a priori* themes. These are themes that are established before the coding process begins (King & Brooks, 2017). Since this study investigates well-developed constructs, and these constructs of interest are precisely defined, I have made use of what King and Brooks (2017) refer to as ‘hard *a priori* themes’. By way of contrast, ‘soft *a priori* themes’ allude to those that are more vaguely defined.

King and Brooks (2017) provided procedural guidelines that can be followed when carrying out TA. These consist of the following steps:

1. Familiarisation with data
2. Preliminary coding
3. Clustering
4. Producing an initial template
5. Applying and developing the initial template
6. Final Interpretation

However, King and Brooks (2017) emphasised that, as is true with most qualitative data analysis methods, the TA process is not linear in practice. Indeed, as I discovered, the process is highly iterative, involving several ‘back and forth’ cycles between steps. I only became aware of the TA approach after I had already done preliminary coding on my full data set, in addition to a fair amount of template application and development. I will now explain how I integrated the TA process into the broader thematic analysis that I had already begun. To describe my process, I will follow the six-step TA structure presented above.

1. Familiarity with the data

After each interview, I listened to the associated recording within a day or two, so that the interview would remain vivid in my mind. I occasionally made notes while listening to the recordings. In some instances, I wrote summaries of the interviews, while other cases were fully transcribed. Where transcriptions were outsourced, I would check every transcript while listening to the recording again, and make corrections, if necessary. Through these processes,

I became closely acquainted with the data — in most cases, listening to the recording at least twice.

2. Preliminary Coding

Coding generally describes the way labels are assigned to data through several iterations (Spencer et al, 2014). Although TA suggests starting to code with a subset of data rather than the full data set, there are no firm rules in this regard. As mentioned earlier, I only discovered the TA approach after I had already coded my full data set. Since I knew quite specifically what required understanding, I made use of predominantly *a priori* codes based on my theoretical constructs and my semi-structured interview protocol. I assigned labels that corresponded with each respective question in the interview protocol. For example, where the question was: “how do you feel when outsiders or the media insult or criticise Seamount University?”, I assigned a label called “reaction to outsiders’ criticism”. Each of the key constructs had associated labels, in accordance with the questions that had been asked in relation to them. At the same time as allocating *a priori* codes, I remained open to new themes that emerged from the data. However, rather than coding every data item or idea, I kept in mind the specific questions I was trying to answer (Bazeley, 2013). Appendix P illustrates the relationship between the interview guideline questions and the preliminary codes that I applied to my full data set.

Coding Software

I made use of a computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software (CAQDAS) package for my coding processes. Specifically, I used NVivo 11 Pro for Windows, Version 11.0 (QSR International, 2017). There are several benefits to using CAQDAS, such as easier data management, speed of processing large volumes of data, and facilitating rigour. However, it does not remove the researcher’s responsibility for analysis and interpretation, especially. Rather, it is purely a useful tool, which aids the process of conducting qualitative data analysis (Spencer et al., 2014). I predominantly used the basic functions of NVivo, namely data storage, coding, hierarchical theme development, and data retrieval. Nevertheless, it was also useful to be able to listen to sections of the audio again — while coding the data — since it was also stored on NVivo, along with the transcripts, summaries and memos. In NVivo, the term, “node”, is used to refer to a coding category. The highest-level category is referred to as a parent node, and the term, child-node, refers to the nodes housed under the parent node, i.e. subcategories. This programme therefore lends itself well to the hierarchical nature of coding used in TA.

3. Clustering

The next step in the process involved clustering my data into themes. Working within each set of preliminary codes, I began the clustering process. Using the category of “salience of PER” as an example, I identified subcategories (applying “child nodes”) such as “role of career stage”, “perceived legitimacy of PER”, and “valued for instrumental reasons”. There were several iterations of clustering, and a few instances where codes were moved into clusters that were originally housed elsewhere. A theme labelled “the fragmented institution” emerged, interpreted to be predominantly a blocker of OID, yet was relevant to all four of the key constructs. This may be construed as an integrative theme, one that “permeate[s] several thematic clusters” (King & Brooks, 2017, p. 35).

4. Producing the Initial Template

In this study the two steps of “producing an initial template” and “applying and developing the template” were not distinct, and therefore will be discussed in Step 5 below.

5. Applying and Developing the Template

While working with my full set of preliminary coded data from the beginning, and clustering the codes into themes, I simultaneously produced, applied, and developed the template. Over several iterations, I merged and separated themes from the child nodes to parent nodes and back again. I deleted themes such as “shifts over time” that no longer seemed relevant to the research question. However, after I decided to adopt the TA approach, I revisited the analysis I had done so far “wearing a new lens”. With the intimate knowledge of my full data set at that stage, I started mapping out a template in a separate Word document, constantly referring to my data and theme codes in NVivo. This helped me to gain clarity. Thereafter, I produced a detailed hierarchical template based on the analysis already done, to apply to the full data set. At this stage, however, I split the data set into two distinct NVivo projects to view data related to “high commitment” separately to that of data pertaining to “low commitment”. Wyatt and Silvester (2015) make the point that TA is appropriate for studies that compare differences in the shared views of different groups. The first new project comprised only the interviews done with the seven respondents that had AC scores *higher* than that of the mean (refer to the section on data selection for the interviewee profile spread), which I called the “High AC” group. The second new project comprised the interviews done with the eight respondents that had Affective Commitment scores *lower* than that of the mean, which I called the “Low AC” group. I then applied the generic template to each group and began the process of coding the

two sets of data. As I progressed, certain codes became unique to only one of the two templates, and these were highlighted in italics in the templates. The final templates are presented in Chapter Five.

6. Final Interpretation

Once the templates were complete, I was able to draw conclusions about the ways in which each of my constructs of interest manifested in the context of this study. Importantly, the final templates enabled a comparison of High AC and Low AC interviewees in terms of their perceptions and experiences.

4.7.2. Qualitative Analysis Validity: “Trustworthiness”

Qualitative research involves a naturalistic approach. Guba and Lincoln (1982) suggested that the trustworthiness of a naturalistic inquiry can be assessed through the following criteria: credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability.

Credibility

According to Guba and Lincoln (1982), the important question that establishes credibility is: "Do the data sources (most often humans) find the inquirer's analysis, formulation, and interpretations to be credible (believable)?" (p. 246). According to Bazeley (2013), checking for agreement from interviewees about the conclusions drawn, called “member checking” or “response validation”, is a useful way to ensure the authenticity of the researcher’s interpretation and the quality of the findings. I sent the full report of my qualitative findings to six of the participants, three from the high AC group, and three from the low AC group. In each case, I informed them of what their pseudonym was, exactly where to find their quotes — by page and position on the respective page (e.g. “middle of page 20”) — and sent them a document with their relevant sections highlighted for convenience. This was done to reduce the time it would take them to complete the process. While I encouraged them to read the whole report, it was not a prerequisite. All six participants replied timeously and gave varying degrees of feedback. Three replied within a few days of receiving the email. They had read their quotes and reported back that they were satisfied with my interpretation of them. One participant requested a minor change in one of her own quotes, stating that she would feel more comfortable if “no increase in resources” was changed to “limited and delayed increase in resources”. The other three participants replied during the following two weeks, also with largely affirming feedback. One of these participants requested that I change the word “school” to “department”, since she believed that the word “school” might provide a form of

identification that she did not want revealed. She also made suggestions for word changes in a paragraph accompanying one of her own quotes, which would better describe what she had wanted to convey.

Transferability

While it is not possible to generalise the findings from the small non-probability sample, transferability is conceivable to the extent that “‘thick description’ is available about both ‘sending’ and ‘receiving’ contexts to make a reasoned judgment about the degree of transferability possible” (Guba & Lincoln, 1982, p. 247). These authors encouraged researchers to engage in purposive sampling to address this. This study ensured that a purposive sample with maximal variation among participants was selected. Furthermore, the richness of a single case studied in detail gives us “the understanding of the way some aspect of society work – an understanding of processes and principles, theory rather than facts” (Bazeley, 2013, p. 411). Gaining insight into some of the processes at play during a time of institutional transition can provide useful theory that may be applied elsewhere, notwithstanding that some adaption may be required for a different contextual setting (Bazeley, 2013). Considering this, I probed the relevant contextual issues, for example, the student protests, to ascertain whether these had adversely impacted on the study’s transferability. Fortunately, this was not the case.

Dependability

This is defined by Guba and Lincoln to mean “stability after discounting such conscious and unpredictable (but rational and logical) changes” (p. 247). The authors recommended keeping an “‘audit trail’ which delineates all methodological steps and decision points” (p. 248). In conducting the analysis in this study, the critical methodological steps and decision points were recorded and discussed in the analysis section of this chapter.

Confirmability

Guba and Lincoln (1982) suggested that confirmability might be established through “practicing reflexivity”, connoting the attempt “to uncover one’s underlying epistemological assumptions”, “implicit assumptions, biases, or prejudices about the context or problem” (p. 248) and so forth. The term, “reflexivity”, carries several meanings, one of which is the obligation of the social researcher to reflect on the implications of their partiality, decisions and methods, when generating knowledge of the social world (Bryman, 2016). A researcher

can contribute to the validity of the study through engaging in reflexivity and acknowledging and disclosing their own bias (Creswell & Poth, 2018b). Reflecting on my role as an academic was therefore essential in this study:

Being a university employee was helpful in terms of my understanding of the participants' work context. Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) emphasised the importance of the researcher's understanding of their participants' social and cultural context to the credibility of inferences they make. However, when I interviewed academics from the various faculties, I quickly learned that faculties differed from one another in several and significant ways. For example, physically, the buildings in which these faculties are located differ in terms of how modern they are, how well-equipped, etc. are assumed to be linked to the funding each faculty gets awarded. One could argue that these aspects might play a role in academics' perceptions of their work environment. The issue of "transformation" frequently came up in the conversation due to its salience in the current South African higher education context. I am a white woman, and there were a couple of times when respondents of different demographics may have been momentarily uncomfortable when transformation and equity issues arose, for example, in the case of an interviewee who commented that there were "still too many old white professors". Fortunately, I did not experience any sense of interviewees "holding back" for fear of saying something potentially offensive. Overall, I experienced an easy rapport with the interviewees and a sense of trust was created. It seemed that all the interviewees answered the questions honestly and frankly. I strived throughout to maintain a "balanced" or neutral stance and stayed open to whatever emerged from the conversation.

4.7.3. Reporting Results

In reporting the findings from the qualitative analysis, I omitted repeated words and phrases, and superfluous words, like "uhm" or "I mean", in the participants' quotes. Minor grammatical errors were corrected to facilitate easier reading. Some quotes were shortened, but care was taken to retain the essence of the quote without losing any nuances. Where explanatory or implied words were missing, I added these in square brackets. The name of the institution has been replaced by a fictitious name, "Seamount University", and pseudonyms were used in all cases to protect the confidentiality of the participants.

4.8. Integration of Phases One and Two

The final phase in the explanatory sequential mixed methods design, entails the integration of both the quantitative and the qualitative findings. Integration in mixed methods research is notoriously challenging as Bryman (2007) noted. The author wrote that “insufficient attention has been paid to the writing up of mixed methods findings and in particular to the ways in which such findings can be integrated” (p. 21) and went on to claim that “there is still considerable uncertainty concerning what it means to integrate findings in mixed methods research” (p. 21). However, it is only through meaningful integration that the synergy of the mixed methods approach can be seen (Guetterman & Creswell, 2015). As Bryman (2007) “forewarned”, I was uncertain at the outset regarding how to integrate my findings. It was easy to stray off-course since there were many findings that were interesting, but superfluous in the context of the research questions. Ultimately, the critical decisions with regards to how to integrate the data, hinged on the purpose of the study. It became a question of how to utilise both the quantitative and qualitative components effectively to answer the research questions.

Guetterman and Creswell (2015) suggested that a useful way of presenting integrated data at the analytical stage is in the form of a table or “joint display”, which simultaneously displays the quantitative and qualitative results. Researchers using joint displays “integrate the data by bringing the data together through a visual means to draw out new insights beyond the information gained from the separate quantitative and qualitative results” (Fetters, Curry, & Creswell, 2013, p. 2143). The use of joint display tables helped my integration process enormously, both in terms of the analysis, and regarding reporting of the integrated results. In this study, the integration focused initially on understanding how each of the constructs manifested in this context. It also sought to provide insight regarding the low average mean scores of the constructs. Furthermore, it aimed to investigate why the impact of PER on the dependent variables was less significant than that of POS. I utilised several joint display tables to integrate specific descriptive quantitative results with relevant qualitative themes. The impact of the contextual issues surrounding each construct, finally provided insight into the resultant structural relationships found in the model. The joint display tables are presented in the section entitled “Integrated Results” in Chapter Five. The discussion of the study’s overall results in Chapter Six was entirely dependent on the integrated results, rather than on either the quantitative or qualitative components separately.

4.9. Theoretical Assumptions

This section details the theoretical assumptions that are implicit in this study, specifically relevant to the conceptual model, in the following list:

1. It is assumed that the university/institution can be viewed as an “organisation” (Van Knippenberg & Sleebos, 2006), and that academics, as employees of the institution, would primarily behave similarly to employees in a corporate organisation.
2. Although social exchange relationships might be conditional upon the individual academic’s level of “felt obligation” or “exchange ideology” (Caesens et al., 2014; Guerrero & Herrbach, 2009; Lew, 2009), these have not been controlled for in this study.
3. Similarly, it is acknowledged that relationships explained by social identity theory might be moderated by the individual academic’s “need for organisational identification” (nOID), defined as a need to preserve social identity resulting from membership in a less personal, universal social category (Glynn, 1998; Mignonac, Herrbach, & Guerrero, 2006b) and “need for self-esteem” (Fuller et al., 2006c).
4. Where many studies have tested “prestige”, or “perceived external prestige” (PEP), as antecedents of OID, this study has used PER — a more nuanced or “multidimensional” construct than that of PEP. For reasons that are outlined in the literature review and conceptual framework chapters, PER has been interpreted interchangeably with PEP, and is assumed to behave in a similar fashion to PEP with respect to both OID and AC.
5. Aside from POS and PER, there are other relevant antecedents that may feasibly influence both the OID and AC of academics. However, by design, only POS and PER were selected to be included in the study. Therefore, it is acknowledged that some of the variance in the dependent variables is likely to be explained by other variables.

4.10. Research Ethics

Ethical clearance was obtained at the proposal stage of the study, before any data was collected. The proposal was reviewed by the UCT Faculty of Commerce “Ethics in Research” Committee, and permission to proceed with the study was granted in September 2016. See Appendix Q for the signed approval letter.

The research was conducted in a manner adhering to the principles stipulated by the “Commerce Faculty Ethics in Research Policy”. Essentially, ethical issues are concerned with

protection from harm, informed consent, right to privacy and honesty with professional colleagues (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). Below is an outline of the steps taken to ensure that the study was conducted ethically.

4.10.1. Database access

Access to the database was obtained via the correct channels, namely the academic institution's HR Department, and the database did not include the names of the faculty members. To further protect the database, the covering letter and survey link was sent directly to prospective respondents via the HR department listserv.

4.10.2. Quantitative Data Collection: Online Survey

It was critical to ensure anonymity since the survey asked personal questions such as those relating to respondents' commitment to their institution and perceptions of organisational support. I therefore selected the most anonymous option for collecting data from an online survey, i.e. providing a web link, as opposed to sending the survey content in an email. In this way, there was no possibility that the source of individual responses could be traced. However, considering my plans to embark on a qualitative phase, I invited participants to disclose their email addresses voluntarily if they were willing to be interviewed later.

Covering letter

The covering letter (sent via email) accompanying the survey link briefly described the nature of the study and the study objectives, stating that participation was voluntary, and that respondents could withdraw from the survey at any time. Furthermore, it provided an indication of the length of time that the survey could be expected to be completed. The covering letter also provided reassurance that the data would be used exclusively for this study and would remain confidential. Moreover, prospective respondents were advised that survey responses would be aggregated, ensuring anonymity. Finally, I provided my contact details and invited respondents to contact me if they wished to discuss any aspect of the research or wished to see a report of my findings on completion.

Request for Demographic Data

The survey asked for data pertaining to race/ethnicity, as well as gender. In these cases, the option was provided for the respondent to select “prefer not to answer”.

4.10.3. Qualitative Data Collection and Analysis: Semi-Structured Interviews

In the case of the qualitative data collection, access to the sample worked differently, since survey respondents had voluntarily provided me with their email addresses, implicitly agreeing to be interviewed. The email I sent to the selected respondents to invite them to participate can be found in Appendix M.

The participant was given a brief introduction at the beginning of the interview, including a reminder of the study and its objectives. After asking whether the interviewee had any queries, I requested permission to record the interview. Once I was given permission to record, I then handed over the “informed consent” laminated document mentioned earlier. Once the interviewee had read this document, I recorded their consent on my recording devices. I ended every interview by asking whether the participant wished to see the final report, as a form of reciprocity (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

In terms of protecting privacy during the data analysis stage of my study, I used the number of the recording as the numeric reference, as well as pseudonyms for my transcripts. As recommended by Bazeley (2012), I kept a master list linking the recording numbers and the names in a separate location from the data, for my own records only. However, in the write up of the findings, I used pseudonyms for illustrative purposes, i.e. a female name to indicate a female academic.

4.10.4. Protection of the University’s Identity

In addition to using pseudonyms when referring to participants, the name of the university was replaced with the fictitious name, “Seamount University”, or just “Seamount”, throughout the document. Where I obtained information directly from the institution (e.g. data on academic staffing), the in-text reference was cited as “Seamount University, 2018”.

4.11. Conclusion

This chapter began with an overview of the study's philosophical stance, and then described the mixed methods design of the study. Details of how data was collected and analysed in Phases One and Two were discussed, followed by a consideration of the integration of the findings. The last two sections informed the reader of the study's theoretical assumptions and ethical considerations, respectively. This concludes the chapter on how the study was conducted. The next chapter presents the results of the research conducted in Phases One and Two, as well as the integrated results.

CHAPTER FIVE

RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

This study investigated the concurrent effects of perceived organisational support (POS) and perceived external reputation (PER) on both the organisational identification (OID) and affective commitment (AC) of academics at a South African university. This chapter presents the quantitative and qualitative findings from Phases One and Two, as well as integrated results from the two phases. It begins with the quantitative online survey results from Phase One, followed by the results from the qualitative component of the survey. Thereafter, the findings from the analysis of the individual face-to-face interviews (Phase Two) are presented. Finally, joint display tables that integrate the quantitative and qualitative results are presented, providing insight regarding the meaning of the constructs in the context of the study.

5.1. Phase One: Quantitative Results

This section presents the results of the analysis of the quantitative part of the online survey administered in Phase One. The descriptive statistics will be presented first, followed by the inferential statistics that comprise the correlation matrix, the assessment and results of each construct's measurement model, and finally, the assessment and results of the structural model.

5.1.1. Descriptive Statistics

Tables 9 to 13 below show the descriptive statistics from the responses to the online survey. It presents each of the four constructs with their corresponding items, one at a time.

5.1.1.1. Affective Commitment

Table 9 summarises the descriptive statistics for each item pertaining to AC in this study. Each item was measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from “Strongly Agree” (5) to “Strongly Disagree” (1).

Table 9 Affective Commitment Descriptive Statistics - by Item

Item	Mean	Median	SD	Min	Max	Skewness	Kurtosis
AC	3.43	3.50	0.803	1	5	0.459	-0.051
AC_1	3.44	4.00	1.029	1	5	-0.421	-0.293
AC_2	3.29	4.00	1.033	1	5	-0.443	-0.831
AC_3	3.26	3.50	1.090	1	5	-0.374	-0.724
AC_4	3.50	4.00	1.121	1	5	-0.645	-0.456
AC_5	3.62	4.00	1.043	1	5	-0.594	-0.344
AC_6	3.47	4.00	1.085	1	5	-0.635	-0.404

The overall mean score for AC was 3.43. None of the individual item mean scores varied dramatically from the overall mean, and the individual standard deviations were very similar. A visual inspection of box plots, scatterplots and histograms, as well as the kurtosis and skewness values, indicated that the individual items were not normally distributed. Refer to Table I1 in Appendix I.

5.1.1.2. Organisational Identification

Table 10 summarises the descriptive statistics for each item pertaining to OID in this study. Each item was measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from “Strongly Agree” (5) to “Strongly Disagree” (1).

Table 10 Organisational Identification Descriptive Statistics - by Item

Item	Mean	Median	SD	Min	Max	Skewness	Kurtosis
OID	3.26	3.17	0.716	2	5	0.042	-0.542
OID_1	2.80	3.00	1.188	1	5	0.212	-1.056
OID_2	3.55	4.00	1.024	1	5	-0.726	0.085
OID_3	3.76	4.00	0.789	2	5	-0.600	0.161
OID_4	3.31	4.00	1.093	1	5	-0.328	-0.752
OID_5	3.08	3.00	1.141	1	5	0.035	-1.251
OID_6	3.04	3.00	0.997	1	5	0.060	-0.895

The overall mean score for the six items in the OID measure was 3.26. The standard deviations for the individual items were not vastly different. However, the mean scores for three of the individual items: OID_1, OID_5, and OID_6, were all somewhat lower than the overall OID mean score. A visual inspection of box plots, scatterplots and histograms, as well as the kurtosis and skewness values, indicated that the individual items were not normally distributed. Refer to Table I2 (Appendix I).

5.1.1.3. Perceived Organisational Support

Table 11 summarises the descriptive statistics for each item pertaining to POS in this study. Each item was measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from “Strongly Agree” (5) to “Strongly Disagree” (1).

Table 11 Perceived Organisational Support Descriptive Statistics - by Item

Item	Mean	Median	SD	Min	Max	Skewness	Kurtosis
POS	2.88	3.00	0.861	1	5	-0.308	-0.470
POS_1	3.14	3.00	1.006	1	5	-0.433	-0.557
POS_2	2.58	3.00	1.092	1	5	0.037	-1.076
POS_3	2.65	3.00	0.993	1	5	0.044	-0.650
POS_4	3.16	3.00	1.046	1	5	-0.557	-0.542
POS_5	2.89	3.00	1.013	1	5	-0.196	-0.448

The overall mean score for this construct was 2.88, a result that indicates low perceived support. While there were differences in the individual items’ mean score, they were not extreme, and the individual items’ standard deviations were similar. A visual inspection of box plots, scatterplots and histograms, as well as the kurtosis and skewness values, indicated that the individual items were not normally distributed. Refer to Table I3 (Appendix I).

5.1.1.4. Perceived External Reputation

Table 12 summarises the descriptive statistics for each item pertaining to PER in this study. Each item was measured on an 11-point scale ranging from 0 (Poor) to 10 (Excellent).

Table 12 Perceived External Reputation Descriptive Statistics - by Item

Item	Mean	Median	SD	Min	Max	Skewness	Kurtosis
PER	6.26	6.40	1.140	1	10	-0.686	0.806
PER_1	5.01	5.00	2.297	0	10	-0.342	-0.363
PER_2	6.42	7.00	1.970	0	10	-0.690	0.245
PER_3	5.97	6.00	2.047	0	10	-0.662	0.574
PER_4	6.06	6.00	1.774	0	10	-0.577	0.388
PER_5	7.87	8.00	1.426	3	10	-0.756	1.000

The overall mean score for the PER construct was 6.26. However, one item pertaining to “Quality of Seamount’s Research and Teaching” (PER_5) had a significantly higher mean score (7.9) than the other four constructs, and it had the lowest standard deviation too. Conversely, “Quality of Seamount’s Management’s Leadership” (PER_1) scored relatively low (5.0) and had the highest standard deviation.

A visual inspection of box plots, scatterplots and histograms, as well as the kurtosis and skewness values, indicated that the individual items were not normally distributed. Refer to Table I4 in Appendix I.

5.1.1.5. Descriptive Statistics Summary

Table 13 summarises the descriptive statistics for each of the four constructs in the model.

Table 13 Constructs - Descriptive Statistics (Overall)

Construct	Mean	Median	SD	Min	Max	Skewness	Kurtosis
AC	3.43	3.50	0.803	1	5	0.459	-0.051
OID	3.26	3.17	0.716	2	5	0.042	-0.542
POS	2.88	3.00	0.861	1	5	-0.308	-0.470
PER	6.26	6.40	1.140	1	10	-0.686	0.806

Since AC, OID and POS all had maximum scores of 5, whereas PER had a maximum score of 10, PER's mean score cannot be compared with the others. Of the three constructs that can be compared, POS had the lowest mean score, while AC had the highest, only marginally higher than that of OID. POS also had a slightly larger standard deviation than the AC and OID. None of the constructs had normal distributions. The next section presents the bivariate correlations that were found.

5.1.2. Bivariate Correlations

Table 14 shows the bivariate correlations between the four variables included in the structural model.

Table 14 Bivariate Correlation Matrix

Pearson Correlation Coefficient Matrix	OID	AC	POS	PER
Organisation Identification (OID)	1			
Affective Commitment (AC)	.608*	1		
Perceived Organisational Support (POS)	.380*	.551*	1	
Perceived External Reputation (PER)	.236*	.352*	.447*	1

*Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The correlation matrix shows all the possible bivariate Pearson's r correlation coefficients between the four constructs. Cohen (1988) argued that Pearson's r to the value of 0.1 can be classified as a small effect size, r with a value of 0.3 is classified as medium, and Pearson's r with a value greater than 0.5 is classified as large. Based on these widely used guidelines, there is a large correlation (0.55) between POS and AC, while the correlation coefficient between PER and AC is moderate (0.35). There is a strong correlation (0.61) between the proposed mediator, OID, and the dependent variable, AC. There is a moderate correlation (0.38) between POS and OID, while the correlation coefficient between PER and OID is small (0.24). Finally, there is a moderate association (0.45) between the two independent variables, POS and PER.

All the Pearson correlation coefficients in the matrix are positive and statistically significant, indicating positive and statistically significant relationships between each of the constructs and one another. The assumption of linearity was confirmed based on the correlation sizes and statistical significance.

The next section reports on the results from assessing the measurement models. The reader is reminded that establishing the measurement integrity of the measurement model is considered an important initial step in building the structural model.

5.1.3. Assessment of the Measurement Models

This section provides the results of the CFA that was conducted on the four constructs' respective measurement models. In each case the model fit is discussed, followed by the model parameter results.

5.1.3.1. Affective Commitment Measurement Model

When performing the initial CFA on the AC measurement model, two of the scale items (AC_1 and AC_3) representing AC were found to yield statistically nonsignificant factor loadings. These two items were “I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career at Seamount” (AC_1) and “I do not feel like part of the family at Seamount” (AC_3). In order to reduce the random error variance “noise” in the measurement models, these two items were deleted from the six-item scale. The following are the results pertaining to model fit and model parameters from the CFA conducted for AC after the problematic items were eliminated.

Model Fit

Table 15 shows the model fit indices estimated in the CFA that was performed for the AC construct.

Table 15 Model Fit Indices: Affective Commitment

Model Fit Criterion	Results
Chi-Square Test of Model Fit	$\chi^2(2) = 7.378; p < 0.05$
RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation)	0.115
CFI	0.972
TLI	0.915
SRMR (Standardised Root Mean Square Residual)	0.037

Note. Sources for the acceptable model fit guidelines were provided in the methodology section.

The RMSEA was above the recommended cut-off value of 0.8. However, the CFI and TLI were both > 0.90 which suggests an acceptable fit, and the SRMR was $< .05$, also within the recommendation of an acceptable fit. Overall the model fit was mediocre, but there were not

enough items to reduce the measurement model further to try to improve the fit. Given the importance of this construct as the main dependent variable, the measurement model was deemed acceptable after removing the two problematic items.

Model Parameters

The CFA model for AC produced the factor loadings depicted in Figure 13.

Figure 13 Affective Commitment Path Diagram

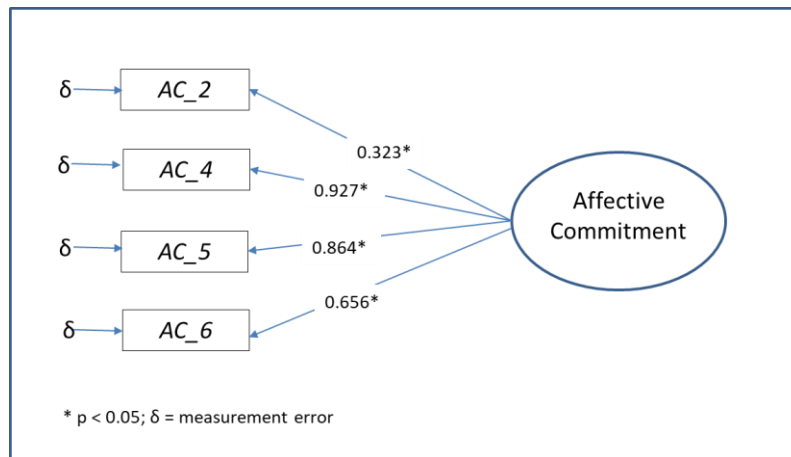


Table 16 shows the complete set of standardised model results for each item.

Table 16 Affective Commitment Items and Standardised Factor Loadings

Indicator	Description (truncated)	Est.	S.E.	Est./S.E	<i>p</i> -Value*
AC_2	Feel like...are my own challenges	0.323	0.088	3.658	0.000
AC_4	Don't feel emotionally attached ^a	0.927	0.029	32.236	0.000
AC_5	Great deal of personal meaning	0.864	0.039	22.403	0.000
AC_6	Do not feel a sense of belonging ^a	0.656	0.066	9.957	0.000

* Two-tailed; ^a Reversed

Each of the remaining items had significant factor loadings. Although the factor loading corresponding to AC_2 is relatively weak, the value was > 0.3 , indicating a sufficient association with the AC latent variable. The other three factor loadings were all > 0.5 .

The results of the model fit indices, as well as the model parameters, suggest that the AC measurement model provides a reasonable account of covariance of the indicator variables with the AC latent variable.

5.1.3.2. Organisational Identification Measurement Model

CFA was performed for the OID measurement model and no problematic items were detected or removed. The following are the results pertaining to the model fit and model parameters.

Model Fit

Table 17 shows the model fit indices estimated in the CFA that was performed for OID.

Table 17 Model Fit Indices: Organisational Identification

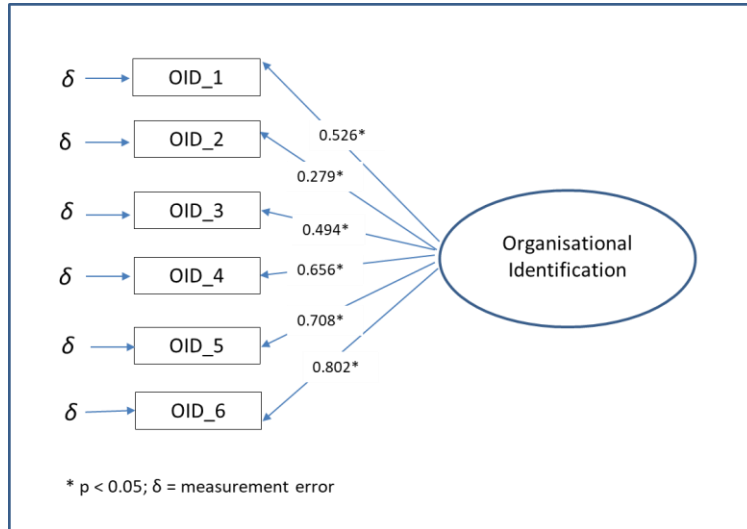
Model Fit Criterion	Results
Chi-Square Test of Model Fit	$\chi^2 (9) = 15.351; p > 0.05$
RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation)	0.059
CFI	0.935
TLI	0.891
SRMR (Standardised Root Mean Square Residual)	0.053

The non-significant p-value of Chi-square suggested that the model fits the data adequately (since the null hypothesis of exact fit had to be rejected); nevertheless, this statistic should be used with caution due to sample size bias (Hair et al., 2010). The RMSEA was within the recommended range of 0.05 – 0.08 for an acceptable fit. Similarly, the CFI was >0.9 which suggests an acceptable fit. The TLI (0.89) and SRMR (0.053) were both approaching acceptable levels. Overall, however, considering all the indices, the model fit was deemed adequate.

Model Parameters

The CFA model for OID produced the factor loadings depicted in Figure 14.

Figure 14 Organisational Identification Path Diagram



Each of the items had significant factor loadings. The factor loading corresponding to OID_2 is weak, but close to 0.3. The other factor loadings vary from moderate (0.49) to strong (0.80).

Table 18 shows the complete set of standardised model results for each item.

Table 18 Organisational Identification Items and Standardised Factor Loadings

Indicator	Description (truncated)	Est.	S.E.	Est./S.E	<i>p</i> -Value*
OID_1	Criticises... like a personal insult	0.526	0.118	4.453	0.000
OID_2	Say “we” rather than “they”	0.279	0.101	2.762	0.006
OID_3	Interested in what others think	0.494	0.103	4.800	0.000
OID_4	Successes as my successes	0.656	0.064	10.205	0.000
OID_5	Media criticise...feel embarrassed	0.708	0.065	10.853	0.000
OID_6	Praise...feels like a compliment	0.802	0.110	7.261	0.000

* Two-tailed

The results of the model fit indices as well as the model parameters, suggest that the OID measurement model provides a reasonable account of covariance of the indicator variables with the OID latent variable.

5.1.3.3. Perceived Organisational Support Measurement Model

After conducting initial CFA on the POS measurement model, one of the scale items (POS_2) was found to yield a statistically nonsignificant factor loading. This item comprised “Seamount University really cares about my well-being”. To reduce the random error variance “noise” in the measurement models, the item was deleted from the five-item scale. The following are the results pertaining to model fit and model parameters from the CFA conducted for POS after the items were deleted.

Model Fit

Table 19 shows the model fit indices estimated in the CFA that was conducted for the POS construct.

Table 19 Model Fit Indices: Perceived Organisational Support

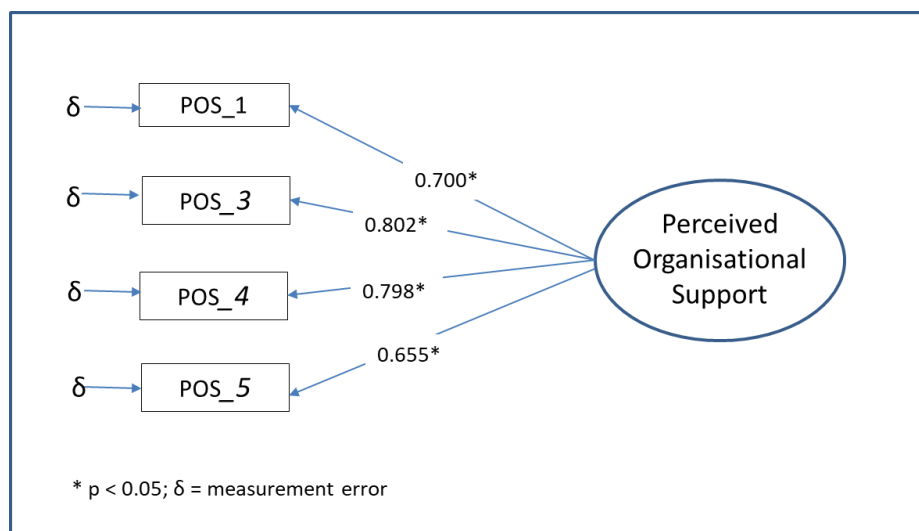
Model Fit Criterion	Results
Chi-Square Test of Model Fit	$\chi^2 (2) = 4.633; p > 0.05$
RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation)	0.080
CFI	0.981
TLI	0.943
SRMR (Standardised Root Mean Square Residual)	0.029

The non-significant p-value of Chi-square suggested that the model fits the data adequately (since the null hypothesis of exact fit had to be rejected), although this statistic should be used with caution due to sample size bias (Hair Jr. et al., 2010). The RMSEA was somewhat high but still considered to be within acceptable limits. Both the CFI and TLI were > 0.90 - CFI being > 0.95 — which suggests an acceptable fit — and the SRMR was $< .05$, also within the recommendation of an acceptable fit. Overall, therefore, the model fit for the POS measurement model was deemed to be acceptable.

Model Parameters

The CFA model for POS produced the factor loadings depicted in Figure 15.

Figure 15 Perceived Organisational Support Path Diagram



Each of the remaining items had significant and high factor loadings, indicating that each item correlated strongly with POS as the latent variable.

Table 20 shows the complete set of standardised model results for each item.

Table 20 Perceived Organisational Support Items and Standardised Factor Loadings

Indicator	Description (truncated)	Est.	S.E.	Est./S.E	p -Value*
Perceived Organisational Support					
POS_1	Pride in my accomplishments	0.700	0.073	9.658	0.000
POS_3	Considers my goals and values	0.802	0.041	19.710	0.000
POS_4	Values my contribution	0.798	0.047	16.903	0.000
POS_5	Help in difficult circumstances	0.655	0.063	10.318	0.000

* Two-tailed

The results of the model fit indices, as well as the model parameters, suggest that the POS measurement model provides a reasonable account of covariance of the indicator variables with the POS latent variable.

5.1.3.4. Perceived External Reputation Measurement Model

CFA was performed for the PER measurement model and no problematic items were detected or removed. The following are the results pertaining to the model fit and model parameters.

Model Fit

Table 21 shows the model fit indices estimated in the CFA that was performed for PER.

Table 21 Model Fit Indices: Perceived External Support

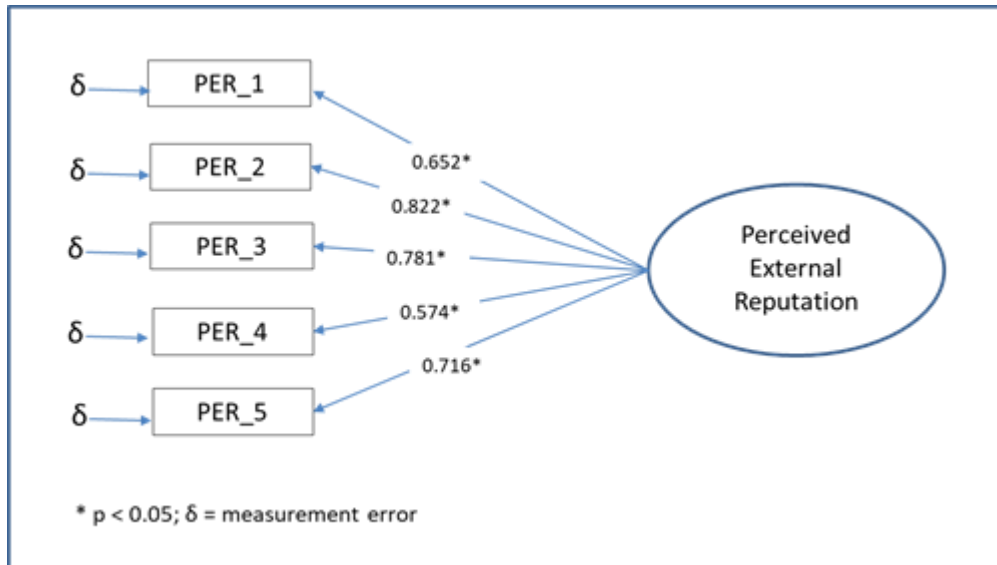
Model Fit Criterion	Results
Chi-Square Test of Model Fit	$\chi^2 (5) = 18.011; p < 0.05$
RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation)	0.113
CFI	0.957
TLI	0.913
SRMR (Standardised Root Mean Square Residual)	0.035

The RMSEA was above the recommended cut-off of 0.08 for an acceptable fit. On the other hand, the CFI was >0.95 , and the TLI was >0.90 , both suggesting an acceptable fit. Similarly, the SRMR was <0.05 which suggests an acceptable fit. Overall, therefore, considering all the indices, the model fit was deemed satisfactory. However, since the RMSEA remained higher than the recommended guidelines, all relationships involving PER in the structural model should be interpreted with caution.

Model Parameters

The CFA model for PER produced the factor loadings depicted in Figure 16.

Figure 16 Perceived External Reputation Path Diagram



Each of the items had significant factor loadings. The factor loading corresponding to PER_4 is moderate. The other factor loadings reveal high correlations with the PER latent construct.

Table 22 shows the complete set of standardised model results for each item.

Table 22 Perceived External Reputation Items and Standardised Factor Loadings

Indicator	Description (truncated)	Est.	S.E.	Est./S.E	<i>p</i> -Value*
PER_1	Management's leadership	0.652	0.065	9.997	0.000
PER_2	Innovative institution	0.822	0.040	20.639	0.000
PER_3	Attract, develop and retain faculty	0.781	0.042	18.381	0.000
PER_4	Community/environment	0.574	0.064	8.920	0.000
PER_5	Research and teaching	0.716	0.045	15.882	0.000

* Two-tailed

The results of the model fit indices, as well as the model parameters, suggest that the PER measurement model provides a reasonable account of covariance of the indicator variables with the PER latent variable.

The results of the measurement models for each construct were presented in this section. The goal of the foregoing section was to demonstrate that the measurement models provide a reasonable empirical representation of the theoretical specifications. Having established that most of the measurement models display at least acceptable levels of fit to the data, it is permissible to specify the structural model. The next section presents the results of the structural model assessment.

5.1.4. Structural Model Results

This section provides the results of the structural model assessment, including the estimated model fit indices, the model parameters, and reports on the variance in AC explained by the model.

5.1.4.1. Assessment of Model Fit

Table 23 presents the model fit indices for the structural model.

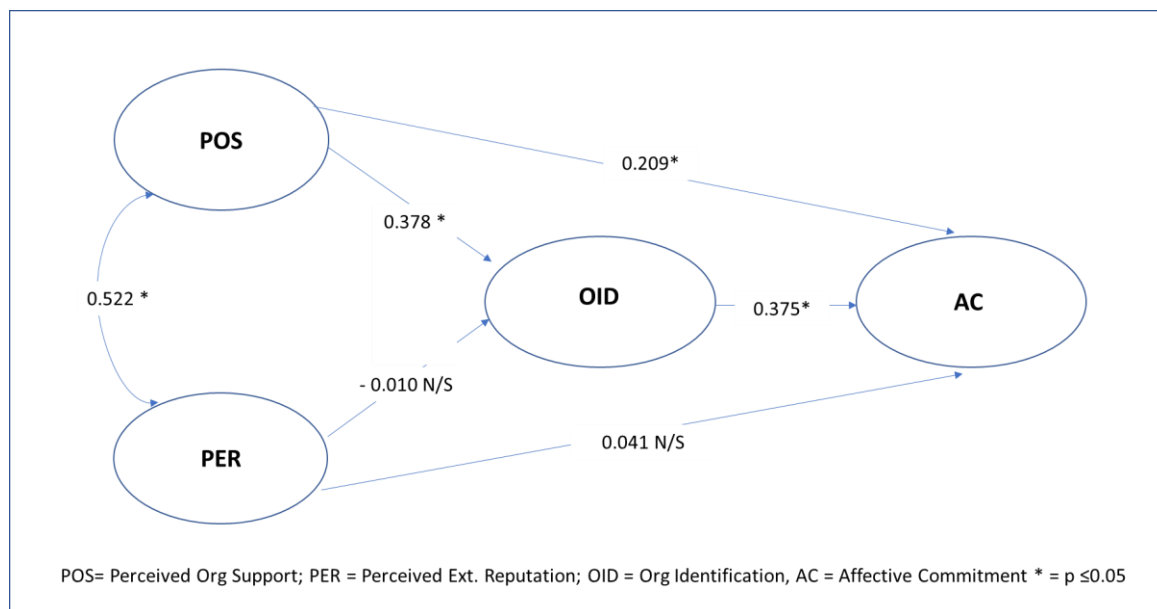
Table 23 Model Fit Indices: Structural Model

Model Fit Criterion	Results
Chi-Square Test of Model Fit	$\chi^2 (146) = 329.510; p < 0.05$
RMSEA	0.078
CFI	0.842
TLI	0.815
SRMR (Standardised Root Mean Square Residual)	0.095

The Chi-Square Test was significant, meaning that the null hypothesis of exact fit had to be rejected. The RMSEA was below the cut-off of 0.08 recommended for an acceptable fit. The CFI and TLI were marginally below the 0.90 threshold and the SRMR was somewhat higher than the 0.5 cut-off. Overall, therefore, the model fit was deemed at best mediocre, but considered adequate for this study.

The structural model showing the standardised path coefficients is presented in Figure 17.³⁷

Figure 17 Structural Model Path Diagram



The next two sections discuss how these results compare with their respective hypotheses. The results have been divided into direct and indirect effects.

5.1.4.2. Direct Effects

Table 24 shows the parameters for the direct relationships between each of the exogenous latent variables and AC, as well as the influence of POS and PER on OID.

Table 24 Structural Model Results – Direct Effects

Predictor	OID			AC		
	Est	SE	Est/SE	Est	SE	Est/SE
POS	0.378*	0.095	3.997	0.209*	0.098	2.137
PER	-0.010	0.101	-0.103	0.041	0.087	0.469
OID	-	-	-	0.375*	0.158	2.378

Est = Standardised path coefficient; SE = Standard error; * $p \leq 0.05$

³⁷ Note that the path diagrams of each latent variable with their respective indicators have been excluded from this diagram since these were presented previously. For the sake of clarity, only the direct effects are shown here.

Supporting the initial theorising (refer H1), OID was significantly and positively related to AC ($\gamma = 0.375$; $p < 0.017$). In addition, supporting H2a, POS was significantly and positively related to AC ($\gamma = 0.209$; $p \leq 0.05$), and supporting H2b, POS was significantly and positively related to OID ($\gamma = 0.378$; $p \leq 0.05$). However, contrary to the initial theorising, refer H3a, PER was not found to be related to AC ($\gamma = 0.041$; $p > 0.05$). Similarly, not supporting the theorising, refer H3b, PER was not found related to OID ($\gamma = -0.010$; $p > 0.05$).

5.1.4.3. Specific Indirect Effects

Table 25 summarises the standardised results of the indirect effects estimated in the structural model.

Table 25 Indirect Effects

Paths	Estimate	SE	Est/SE
POS -> OID -> AC	0.142*	0.073	1.933
PER -> OID -> AC	-0.004	0.038	-0.103

Est = Standardised path coefficient; SE = Standard error; * $p \leq 0.05$

The relationship between POS and AC was found to be partially mediated by OID ($\gamma = 0.142$, $p \leq 0.05$), supporting H2c. However, contrary to H3c, OID does not partially mediate the relationship between PER and AC ($\gamma = -0.004$; $p > 0.05$).

5.1.4.4. Association between Independent Latent Variables

A significant association was found between the two independent variables POS and PER: ($\phi = 0.522$, $p \leq 0.05$).

5.1.4.5. Variance Explained by the Model - R Square (R²)

Table 26 shows the R² results, depicting the variance explained by the model relating to the dependent variables, OID and AC, respectively.

Table 26 Variance Explained - R²

Latent Variable	Est.	S.E.	Est./S.E	<i>p</i> -Value*
OID	0.139	0.056	2.480	0.013
AC	0.259	0.125	2.065	0.039

* Two-tailed

The structural model explained 13.9% of the variance in OID ($p < 0.05$), and 25.9% of the variance in AC ($p < 0.05$). Although this is not particularly high, it is not surprising since only two predictors were tested in this model³⁸.

5.1.5. Conclusion

This section summarises the results of the quantitative analysis. Support was found for hypotheses H1, H2a and H2b given that the study found that OID was positively related to AC, and that POS was positively related to AC and OID, respectively. There was also support for H2c, with the finding that the relationship between POS and AC was partially mediated by OID. Conversely, support was lacking for hypotheses H3a and H3b; there was no statistical support demonstrating any influence of PER on OID, nor on AC. Similarly, there was no support for hypothesis H3c since OID was not found to mediate the relationship between PER and AC in this study. The results suggest that POS has a stronger influence on both OID and AC than does PER in this study. While OID plays a partially mediating role in the relationship between POS and AC, it does not partially mediate the relationship between PER and AC. This concludes the section on Phase One's quantitative results, emanating from the quantitative measures in the online survey. The next section discusses Phase One's qualitative results from the open-ended questions.

³⁸ While there were several other potential antecedents of both the dependent variables, in order to answer the research questions, the model was limited to include only these two.

5.2. Phase One: Embedded Qualitative Results

This section discusses the results of the answers to the open-ended questions that were analysed using principles of content analysis.

5.2.1. Perceived External Reputation

The open-ended question at the end of the section pertaining to *Perceived External Reputation* reads as follows: “Optional: Please add any comments regarding how you feel people outside Seamount University view Seamount’s reputation.”

The summary frequency table below (Table 27) shows the percentage of comments pertaining to each of the main themes. Themes comprising less than seven comments have not been included. It can be noted that the percentage was calculated as the number of comments coded to each theme, out of the total number of comments provided (76). However, I selected to use parallel coding and hence the themes are not mutually exclusive. Specifically, there is an overlap between “FMF - Negative Impact” and “Management’s Handling of FMF”.

Table 27 Content Analysis for External Reputation

Theme	%	Representative Quote
FMF - Negative Impact	41%	<i>The recent protests have damaged the reputation and status of (the institution) in the eyes of the people outside (the institution).</i>
Management’s Handling of FMF	28%	<i>Our reputation has tumbled outside due to the executive giving clemency to the students involved in violence over the last 2 years.</i>
Reputation is Still Good	18%	<i>I think (the institution) has a very good reputation to the outside world (esp. in relation to other universities in SA/Rest of Africa).</i>
Reputation is Declining	9%	<i>The prognosis for the future is negative.</i>

As Table 27 shows, the impact of the FMF student protests is perceived to be somewhat damaging to the institution’s reputation (41% of comments). Further to this, 21 respondents (28%) felt that management’s handling of the protests was to blame. On the other hand,

however, 14 respondents (18%) believed that the institution's good reputation prevailed. Finally, 7 respondents (9%) believed that the institution's reputation is declining.

5.2.2. Working Environment

The open-ended question at the end of the section pertaining to *Working Environment* read as follows: "Optional: Please provide any comments you would like to add regarding your work environment. 82 out of the 215 (38%) respondents provided comments for this question.

The comments have once again been split into themes and sub-themes, where applicable³⁹. Themes comprising comments that were less than 5% of the total comments were excluded.

The main (mutually exclusive) themes were as follows:

- Differentiation between Proximal Units and Institution (35%)⁴⁰
- Criticism of the Executive (21%)
- Lack of Organisational Support (12%)
- Transformation-related Issues (10%)
- Working Environment - Other (21%)

The sub-themes for each of these main themes are summarised in Tables 28 - 32.

³⁹ In this case, the sub-themes are mutually exclusive and therefore the total responses for each sub-theme add up to the response percentage for the main theme.

⁴⁰ Percentage of total number of comments

Differentiation between More Proximal Units and the Institution

Table 28 shows the sub-themes and related quotes under the main theme “differentiation between more proximal units and the institution”.

Table 28 Differentiation between Proximal Units and the Institution

Sub-themes	%	Representative Quote
Immediate environment is supportive but not the institution	15%	<i>It's a toxic environment at the moment, where those who do not toe the “party” line are ostracised. My own department and close colleagues are great, but my faculty and the university as a whole are unwelcoming and often hostile.</i>
Immediate environment is supportive (no comment re institutional level support)	10%	<i>I feel I am part of a department, which I love.</i>
Other	10%	<i>I don't feel particularly valued at faculty and departmental level, which is where it really matters.</i>

Note. Percentages were calculated as the number of comments coded to each theme, out of the total (82) comments provided.

A total of 35% of all comments alluded to differences between their immediate working environment (either specifying their faculty or department), and the institution. Alternatively, they would refer to “their level” versus “the institutional level”. This significant distinguishing between more proximal units of the institution and the institution as a more distal unit, suggests that it is a contextual factor worth noting.

5.2.2.1. Criticism of the Executive

Table 29 shows the sub-themes and related quotes under the main theme “Criticism of the Executive”.

Table 29 Criticism of the Executive

Sub-themes	%	Representative Quote
Poor leadership, self-interested behaviour, other	21%	<i>Leadership failed miserably in dealing with a dysfunctional situation; the institution is beset by self-serving hypocrisy.</i>

There were 17 comments (21%) alluding to unhappiness with top management of the institution.

5.2.2.2. Lack of Organisational Support

Table 30 shows the sub-themes and related quotes under the main theme “Lack of Organisational Support”.

Table 30 Lack of Organisational Support

Sub-themes	%	Representative Quote
Not feeling supported or valued	12%	<i>Many of us ... feel that the “University” does not “have our back”; Here I have the feeling that it makes no difference what I do.</i>

A strong expression of lack of support and feelings of not being valued was seen in 12% of all the responses to the question of working environment.

5.2.2.3. Transformation-related Issues

Table 31 shows the sub-themes and related quotes under the main theme “Transformation-related Issues”.

Table 31 Transformation-related Issues

Sub-themes	%	Representative Quote
Transformation too slow	5%	<i>...no commitment to transformation from a staffing point of view.</i>
Transformation favours some over others	5%	<i>...(institution) ONLY cares about staff that they can gain from – that is, black colleagues, preferably South African.</i>

Faculty were divided about the issue of transformation. Four survey respondents alluded to transformation being too slow, while four others suggested that transformation processes had some negative outcomes.

5.2.2.4. Working Environment: Other

Table 32 shows the sub-themes and related quotes under the main theme “Working Environment: Other”.

Table 32 Working Environment: Other

Sub-themes	%	Representative Quote
Low morale	7%	<i>The workload expectations are quite severe and the valuing of publications significantly over teaching etc. does affect morale when time for writing and publishing is very constrained.</i>
Administrative burden	6%	<i>Administrative loads are being progressively devolved and stealing research time.</i>
Toxic culture	5%	<i>I completely distrust the University and anticipate being mistreated and exploited as an academic.</i>
Autonomy is valued	5%	<i>The autonomy is why I work at Seamount.</i>

Various other themes emerged that help create a sense of the context as perceived by some academics (morale, administrative burden, and culture). Although the frequency of comments constituting these individual themes is not high, together they suggest some unhappiness in the academic workforce. Morale was reportedly low for 6 respondents (7%), while the increasing administrative burden was mentioned as being unwelcome to 5 respondents (6%). Suggestions were made in 5% of the comments that the institution’s culture was “toxic” with elements of mistrust and exploitation. On the other hand, autonomy was highlighted as being highly valued. Four respondents (5%) mentioned the importance of autonomy in their working environment.

This concludes the results of the embedded qualitative questions in the online survey. Having thus far presented the results of Phase One quantitative and qualitative results, respectively, the next section presents the findings of the follow-up interviews, comprising the Phase Two qualitative results.

5.3. Phase Two: Qualitative Results

An overview of the qualitative results, showing the four construct categories, the *a priori* first order themes and the highest level of the lower order themes is presented in Table 33 below.

Table 33 Overview of Qualitative Findings – Key Themes

Construct Category	First-Order Categories	Lower-Order Categories/ Themes*
Affective Commitment	• Descriptors	Non-organisational commitment targets
	• Enablers	Alignment of Values; Work Experience; Sentimental Ties
	• Blockers	Work Environment; Institutional Characteristics
Organisational Identification	• Enablers	Associations; Pride in Membership
	• Blockers	Fragmented Institution; Identification with Other; No Personal History
	• Reactions to Outsider Criticism	Evaluates Legitimacy; Defends Institution; Feels Responsibility; Relevance
Perceived Organisational Support	• Satisfied/ Not Dissatisfied	Access to Resources; Feeling Valued; Acceptance of Culture
	• Dissatisfied	Not Feeling Valued; Not Valued Equally; Insufficient Support for Young Academics; Lack of Caring
Perceived External Reputation	• Reputation Dimensions – Comparisons and Relative Importance	Research and Teaching
	• Salience of Perceived External Reputation	Instrumentality; Primacy of Own Academic Reputation
	• Impact of Student Protests	Reputation Still Intact; Reputation Suffered

* These are the highest level lower order categories; there are additional sub-themes for each.

Table 33 provides a high-level overview of the themes that emerged across the full sample and each of these themes will be discussed in due course. However, the analysis was done in a way that developed two different templates⁴¹ for each *a priori* first order theme as follows:

1. one template for the data set that corresponded to interviewees that scored higher than the AC overall mean score of 3.43 – referred to throughout this chapter as “the High Affective Commitment group” (High AC); and
2. a separate template for the data set associated with interviewees that scored lower than the AC mean score — referred to as “the Low Affective Commitment group” (Low AC).

The tables that follow show the *a priori* first order themes for each of the four constructs, together with their respective hierarchies of sub-themes, corresponding to the templates that emerged for the High AC group and the Low AC group, respectively. Unique themes for the High AC and Low AC groups, respectively, are italicised in the tables. A discussion follows each table, which elaborates on the themes, based on the data that were analysed. The first key construct reported on is that of the dependent variable, AC.

5.3.1. Affective Commitment

The comments pertaining to AC have been divided into three *a priori* categories, namely “AC Descriptors”, “AC Enablers” and “AC Blockers”. The first category alludes to the meaning that participants assign to AC, the enablers reveal the factors that seemingly encourage AC, and the blockers are related to those factors that discourage AC.

⁴¹ As described in the methodology section, the Template Analysis approach (King & Brooks, 2017) guided the qualitative data analysis in Phase Two.

5.3.1.1. Affective Commitment Descriptors

Table 34 shows the AC Descriptors.

Table 34 AC Descriptors

Construct: Affective Commitment*		
First-Order Category	High Commitment Respondents Lower-Order Categories	Low Commitment Respondents Lower-Order Categories
Descriptors*	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Non-organisational commitment targets - Proximal Targets <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students • <i>Team</i> • <i>Colleagues</i> - Occupational <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Personal • Research 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Non-organisational commitment targets - Proximal Targets <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students • <i>Patients</i> • <i>HOD</i> - Occupational <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Personal • Research

* These were *a priori* categories. Themes denoted in *italics* represent those that are exclusive to that group.

This category captures the way academics described their commitment to the institution. The question asked was “How would you describe your commitment to Seamount?” If the participant needed clarification, this question was rephrased “what does commitment to Seamount University mean to you?” Only one second-order theme emerged, namely that of “non-organisational commitment targets”.

Commitment to Non-Organisational Targets

The template lower-order categories for this theme were essentially the same for both High AC and Low AC groups. When describing their commitment to the institution, invariably interviewees would not refer to any commitment at the level of the organisation. Interviewees would either describe a more **proximal target**⁴² of their commitment, such as their department or their faculty, or they would talk about how committed they were to their **students, their teams, their colleagues, or their patients.**

⁴² Bold font will be used in the body text throughout this chapter to denote lower-order categories.

Bryan (Faculty of Humanities) expressed his commitment as follows:

My commitment is not so much to the institution per se, it's not to some ideal of Seamount University, it's to who I work with, my department, my colleagues here, my colleagues in other departments, my work that I can get done here, that's where the commitments, that's where the bonds really are.

Alternatively, their primary commitment was expressed as some form of commitment to their **occupation**. This was linked closely to their personal commitment to contribute as an academic in their chosen field or discipline, or to their commitment to their research, their projects, or their specific programmes.

Simon (Faculty of Engineering) described his commitment as follows:

Commitment means doing my job properly and to the best of my ability. Commitment keeps you doing a quality job. Commitment is a professional standard, a personal standard, fair exchange as work for salary.

5.3.1.2. Enablers of Affective Commitment

Table 35 shows the next of the three AC categories, “AC Enablers”. Here three second-order themes emerged, comprising “alignment of personal and institutional values”; “work experience”; and sentimental ties”. These will each be discussed in turn.

Table 35 AC Enablers

Construct: Affective Commitment*			
First-Order Category	High Commitment Respondents		Low Commitment Respondents
	Lower-Order Categories		Lower-Order Categories
Enablers*	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Alignment of Values Work Experience <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Autonomy - Relationships - Location <i>Sentimental Ties</i> 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Alignment of Values Work Experience <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Autonomy - Relationships - Location

* These were *a priori* categories. Themes denoted in *italics* represent those that are exclusive to that group.

Alignment of Personal and Institutional Values

A prevalent theme when discussing what interviewees particularly appreciated about working for the institution was whether the institution embodied the values that matched those of the respondents. Corrine (Faculty of Health) commented:

I work in a department that is in the pursuit of social justice. So, I'm working in the right place because all our work seeks to contribute to upliftment of society.

Work Experience

Autonomy and academic freedom was top of mind for ten of the fifteen participants from both High AC and Low AC groups and was always mentioned first when speaking about commitment. Roger (Faculty of Commerce) illustrated his deep appreciation of **autonomy** when he said:

The top thing about working at Seamount University is the freedom of my time, so I can choose how I want to spend my time. Obviously, I can't lie on the beach all day; at the end of the year I'm accountable... I love the freedom, it's one of the reasons I'm still here. Not just freedom of time, but the lack of micro-management, that is the winner of Seamount University.

Academic freedom is exemplified in the following quote from Bryan (Faculty of Humanities):

I chose to come to Seamount because it was an opportunity to collaborate with a whole lot of different things. And it wouldn't have shoe-horned me into doing one kind of research, not one kind, but research in one particular area on a very narrow topic.

Secondly, **positive relationships with colleagues** featured strongly in the conversations pertaining to good work experiences. Paul (Faculty of Commerce) said the following:

I have lots of friends at Seamount University, there are lots of good people I know at Seamount.

Finally, three participants in both High AC and Low AC groups mentioned that the **geographical location** where the institution is based was an important factor for them. Paul continued:

And also, I'm happy living and working in [name of city]. I wouldn't want to live anywhere else, all other things being equal.

Sentimental Ties

While “alignment of personal and institutional values” and “work experience” were themes relevant to both groups, the theme “sentimental ties” only applied to the high AC group.

Examples of sentimental ties varied from having good memories of younger days as a student, to claiming an affiliation with the institution's values and traditions.

This quote from Thandi (Faculty of Engineering) exemplifies a sentimental tie:

Seamount University is my home. Ten years...I've been through ups and downs with this place; I lost my parents while I was here; I met my best friends while I was here...

5.3.1.3. Blockers to Affective Commitment

Table 36 shows the next of the three AC categories, "AC Blockers"

Table 36 AC Blockers

Construct: Affective Commitment*		
First-Order Category	High Commitment Respondents Lower-Order Categories	Low Commitment Respondents Lower-Order Categories
Blockers*	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Work Environment <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Heavy workload - <i>Administration</i> - Management • Institutional characteristics <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>Hierarchical</i> - <i>Bureaucratic</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Work Environment <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Management - Heavy workload - <i>Political climate</i> - <i>Change resistance</i> • Institutional characteristics <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>Corporate</i>

* These were *a priori* categories. Themes denoted in *italics* represent those that are exclusive to that group.

While the main themes for the inhibitors of AC are the same for both groups, there were differences in the sub-themes. Two common key themes emerged, namely "work environment" and "institutional characteristics".

Work Environment

Heavy Workload

Interviewees from both groups spoke of the **heavy workload** with regards to both teaching and research, and the stress of finding time to manage them sufficiently. They frequently mentioned that their workload had increased, and more demands were being placed on them.

Administrative Burden

For the high commitment group, some of these additional demands came in the form of **administration**, and this too was being experienced as increasing. This quote from Theresa (Faculty of Commerce) captures both sub-themes:

I feel academics here are expected to do more admin than they should. We're [also] teaching too much. Academics are feeling exhausted. The workload is taking its toll on my research. Like a bucket with a slow leak. Classes getting bigger, with limited and delayed increase in resources.

Management and Leadership

While both groups discussed complaints and criticisms regarding **management and leadership**, these were emphasised more by the Low AC group, hence appearing at the top of their list. Complaints about management and leadership ranged from the concentration of power held by professors (High AC group) and mistrust of management (Low AC group), to leadership being 'absent' (Low AC group) and criticism for the way leadership handled the FMF crisis (both groups).

This quote from Margaret (Faculty of Health) typifies discontent with management and leadership:

... but it's [the institution] still profoundly troubled, by things that are beyond our control and when anybody looks for leadership it is just simply absent. And that's tough.

A couple of additional themes emerged under "work environment" for the Low AC group. These included "political climate" and "resistance to change".

Political Climate

The **political climate** is related to the aftermath of the 2015 – 2016 student protests. Aside from any reputational impact, it was clear from the interviewee comments that the protests — and related issues such as "decolonisation" of the curriculum — had affected the morale of some faculty. This brought about a sense of uncertainty, and created a divisive environment where people felt as if they were on "different sides of the fence".

Margaret spoke about struggling with "the political climate":

I'm finding the political climate very difficult because I'm not inherently a politically-minded kind of person. And I have been quite disappointed and at times angry with the institutional response.

Resistance to change

The need to incorporate blended learning and curriculum changes, as well as transformation-related issues, were examples of aspects that seemed to represent resistance to change. Murray (Faculty of Commerce) expressed his unhappiness about being tasked with converting his material into online resources and complained bitterly about the length of time it was taking him. According to Murray:

Just to get one [2-hour] lesson converted takes a whole day.

Institutional Characteristics

Both groups identified characteristics of the institution that were less than desirable in terms of the kind of place they would rather work at. These included the institution being too **hierarchical** in nature, as well as it being **bureaucratic** and **inefficient** (High AC group). The Low AC group likened the institution to that of a large corporation, alluding to its impersonal nature. Paul's (Faculty of Commerce) quote captures much of this:

...I suppose like any large bureaucracy it's an inflexible institution. It doesn't have the flexibility that I would like.

Corrine (Faculty of Health) concurred, noting that the environment was not as dynamic or innovative as she would like it to be, through providing this analogy:

I just feel sometimes we should be Google but we're Home Affairs.⁴³

This concludes the findings regarding the construct of AC, having elaborated on the key themes that emerged in the data. The next section discusses the findings of the mediator variable, OID.

5.3.2. Organisational Identification

Three key categories were predetermined for OID, namely "OID Enablers, "OID Blockers" and "Reactions to Outsider Criticism".

⁴³ Google represents the epitome of a highly innovative company, while Home Affairs refers to a South African government department that has a reputation of being bureaucratic and inflexible.

5.3.2.1. Enablers of Organisational Identification

Participants were asked “What does it mean to you to be a member of Seamount University?” From this question, and further probing, I sought to understand how academics become identified to the institution for which they work, summarised in the *a priori* category labelled “enablers of OID”.

Table 37 shows the results for “OID Enablers”.

Table 37 *OID Enablers*

Construct: Organisational Identification*			
First-Order Category	High Commitment Respondents		Low Commitment Respondents
	Lower-Order Categories		Lower-Order Categories
Enablers*	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Associations</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>Personal history</i> - <i>Ideals</i> • Pride in Membership 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pride in Membership

* These were *a priori* categories. Themes denoted in *italics* represent those that are exclusive to that group.

Two second-order themes emerged from the interviews under the *a priori* theme “OID Enablers”, comprising “nostalgic/idealistic associations” (High AC group only) and “pride in membership” (both High and Low AC groups).

Nostalgic/Idealistic Associations

In the high commitment group, it was evident that there was a greater sense of identification with the institution when the academic had a personal history with the institution. For example, Paul (Faculty of Commerce), a High AC interviewee, mentioned that his first job was at the same institution and he had fond memories of it. In a few instances, High AC participants would refer to the institution as their “alma mater”. Interestingly, nostalgia seemed to play an important role in the identification process too. When some of the participants spoke of their history with the institution, there was an element of affection in their tone during the personal recollection. Chris (Faculty of Health) exemplified this when he said:

Where it [my identification with Seamount University] started was on the rugby field; because as a schoolboy in grade 7, we used to come and watch the club rugby here, and I loved Seamount University because they always did it [played the game] differently.

Along a similar vein, three interviewees associated the institution with **idealistic aspirations** that they considered important. Chris continued:

I came to Seamount University because it was standing up against apartheid; I liked Seamount because they fought it – that was great; it was open and challenging ideas...

It seemed as if the participants “owned” the nostalgic and idealistic associations, i.e. that those attributes were part of who they were as individuals, and they were visibly proud when they spoke of them.

Pride in Membership

In both groups, although to a much lesser extent in the Low AC group, some participants mentioned that they experienced a sense of pride when they told outsiders that they worked at the institution. Corrine expressed her feelings of pride and acknowledgement as follows:

When you tell people that you're an academic at Seamount University, that comes with some benefits. From an ego position I suppose. There is a kind of legitimacy in society that comes with that.

5.3.2.2. Blockers to Organisational Identification

Comments pertaining to what hindered identification with the institution from forming, were summarised in the *a priori* category labelled “blockers to OID”. Table 38 shows the themes and lower-order categories related to “Blockers to OID”.

Table 38 Blockers to Organisational Identification

Construct: Organisational Identification*		
	High Commitment Respondents	Low Commitment Respondents
First-Order Category	Lower-Order Categories	Lower-Order Categories
Blockers*	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Fragmented Institution <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>“In-groups”</i> <i>Institutional identity</i> Identification with Other <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Occupation Role Discipline 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Fragmented Institution Identification with Other <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Occupation Role Discipline <i>No Personal History</i>

* These were *a priori* categories. Themes denoted in *italics* represent those that are exclusive to that group.

This category comprises the following lower-order categories: “fragmented institution”, “stronger identification with faculty, role, discipline or occupation” (common to both High AC and Low AC groups), “different in-groups” and “lack of clear institutional identity” (High AC group), and “no history with the institution” (Low AC group).

The Fragmented Institution

Although categorised as a blocker of OID, the “fragmented institution” was an overarching theme, underpinning the entire data set. This is referred to as an “integrative theme” by King and Brooks (2017). Academics from both the High and Low AC groups, seldom viewed the institution as a coherent whole. Lack of cross-faculty collaboration was also mentioned a few times. To many, **their own faculties or departments** were the foci of their identification. Corrine (Faculty of Health) remarked:

Like any big institution, Seamount University's massive. It's so difficult for me to even think about Seamount University in my day to day life; I think about my department and my faculty and my immediate environment. I do think about the broader university, but not as a whole university.

Further testifying to the fragmentation, there was a perception that different social groups, “networks” or “**in-groups**”, existed within the institution. Rather than the entire institution being considered the in-group, identification appeared to take place at the level of smaller affiliations.

The following quote from Bryan (Faculty of Humanities) illustrates this:

Seamount University can be a tough place in terms of these [networks]. There are people who are hooked into a particular network of “old school” Seamount. And sometimes people come in from the outside and they bump up against that... Now I think that there is more being done to address those. In fact, now it feels like there are actually two networks to be hooked into, at least.

Another blocker of OID seemed to be the **lack of clear institutional identity**, or as one participant phrased it “knowing what we stand for”. This was acknowledged to be an after-effect of the troubled apartheid past, together with the recognition that the institution is currently in a “transition phase”. Bryan described this blocker:

I don't think it's about the mission of the university or any of those sort of high level ideals of what the institution is about. I think it's more about identifying yourself as being a part of a group of people who do things together. Who share certain values. And those values may revolve around a notion of the history of the university, or some kind of sporting thing, something that is different than just being an academic. We're not quite sure what Seamount University stands for at this point.

Stronger Identification with Occupation, Role, or Discipline

There were several participant accounts from both the High AC and Low AC groups that suggested stronger identification with academics' occupation, role, or discipline, rather than with the institution. Of these, the one mentioned most often, was that of identification with their occupation as academics. As Bryan (Faculty of Humanities), a High AC participant, commented:

... our identity as academics is wrapped up in what we do. And what we do can be done pretty much anywhere.

Ayesha (Faculty of Commerce), a Low AC participant, was explicit about the comparison between identity linked to occupation versus identity linked to the institution:

First and foremost, I see myself as an academic. That identity is stronger than the part of my identity linked to an institution. Academics in Europe move around a lot; their individual identities as academics are more important to them.

No Personal History with the Institution

This theme pertains only to the Low AC group. While having a personal history with the institution may be an enabler of OID, having no history at all with the institution can serve to inhibit OID. Nina (Faculty of Health) had no history with the institution prior to joining, and described her feelings as follows:

I don't feel a deep sense of belonging because I didn't do my undergraduate studies here. I'm through and through a Witsy.⁴⁴

⁴⁴ Nickname for students, graduates, and alumni of another South African university

5.3.2.3. Reaction to Outsiders' Criticism

The third and final *a priori* category relating to the construct of OID was that of "Reaction to Outsiders' Criticism". Table 39 shows the themes related to this.

Table 39 Reactions to Outsider Criticism

Construct: Organisational Identification*			
First-Order Category	High Commitment Respondents	Low Commitment Respondents	
	Lower-Order Categories	Lower-Order Categories	
Reactions to Outsider Criticism*	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Evaluates Legitimacy <i>Defends institution</i> <i>Feels Responsibility</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Evaluates Legitimacy <i>Relevance</i> 	

* These were *a priori* categories. Themes denoted in *italics* represent those that are exclusive to that group.

Responses to the question "How do you feel when outsiders or the media insult or criticise Seamount University?" were categorised into the following themes: "evaluates legitimacy" (both High and Low AC groups), "defends the institution" and "feels responsibility for fixing" (pertaining to the high AC group only), and "own department is more relevant" (Low AC group only). These themes will now be discussed.

Evaluation of Legitimacy

Some participants suggested that they would critically evaluate the legitimacy of the criticism of the institution, rather than accept it at face value. Interviewees from both groups believed that outsiders may not have the necessary, correct, or complete information required to justify judgements or statements made about the institution.

Nina expressed this as follows:

People on the outside don't always know what's going on inside. The university has had huge issues to deal with and I think they have done the best that they can possibly do. I don't think the outside world always knows what the issues are.

In both High and Low AC groups, reactions varied in terms of how participants engaged with the criticism. Peter (Faculty of Commerce), a Low AC participant, provided this example of how he actively and openly engages with the criticism:

I'm not invested in being an evangelist for Seamount. I'm quite self-critical and self-reflective about myself and also where I work. I think it's important to have honest conversations with people.

Whereas Peter was impartial in his description of his engagement with criticism, Paul, a High AC participant, demonstrated a vested interest in correcting inaccurate impressions, revealed in the following quote:

And if they do [criticise], and if I feel that I can make a contribution to their understanding I would. I wouldn't provoke an extreme confrontation or anything like that. But I would try to find a way to persuade people if they misunderstand what's going on.

Ayesha expressed an attitude of indifference to outsider criticism when she stated:

What others think doesn't bother me. Their perception doesn't matter if I don't rely on them. I don't care what they think because they don't know what they're talking about.

Margaret, on the other hand, likened the institution to a large corporation. She spoke of criticism as being par for the course given the growing distrust of corporates, implying that it should therefore be ignored:

Again, because I think it's like a big corporate. I think that's really what it is: some people hate banks while some people hate universities.

Media reports were generally regarded with skepticism, with participants suggesting that these were often biased and inaccurate. Theresa used the word “warped”. The quote below captures a High AC participant's reason for disregarding media criticism:

We live in an age of media coverage where you could pretty much read what you want to. If you wanted to read just positive articles about Seamount University, you could just do that. If you wanted to read just negative articles you could do that. So, if we spent any time at all feeling low about negative things that are said about Seamount, it's pointless.

Defence of the Institution

Some High AC group participants spoke about their need to defend the institution when they were exposed to criticism towards it. Roger (Faculty of Commerce) made the following statement:

I have lots of friends at other universities, we still take jabs at each other, in some ways I am proud of Seamount University, I don't take it deeply personally but it is personal when people say bad things about Seamount, I feel like I need to defend it.

Responsibility for Fixing

When exposed to criticism regarding the institution, a few participants from the High AC group spoke about their need to put things right: As Thandi (Faculty of Engineering) stated:

I don't feel it's a direct insult to me. But I certainly feel the responsibility to be part of a solution.

Relevance of Own Department

Two of the Low AC participants expressed more concerned about the reputation of their own faculty or department than that of the institution. Simon (Faculty of Engineering) was quite explicit about this:

You would have had a different response if you had asked this question on a departmental level. I would feel more partisan about [criticism of] my own department.

This concludes the findings pertaining to the construct of OID, having elaborated on the key themes that emerged in the data. The next section discusses the findings of the first of the two independent variables, POS.

5.3.3. Perceived Organisational Support

Although quantitative survey scores for all the individual items measuring the construct of POS were low, a “neutral” question was asked: “how would you describe the support you get from Seamount University?” The responses were classified into one of two categories, either “Satisfied/ Not Dissatisfied” or “Dissatisfied”.

5.3.3.1. Perceived Organisational Support: Satisfied/Not Dissatisfied

Table 40 shows the template that was produced for the category of “Satisfied/Not Dissatisfied”.

Table 40 *Satisfied / Not Dissatisfied*

Construct: Perceived Organisational Support*			
First-Order Category	High Commitment Respondents		Low Commitment Respondents
	Lower-Order Categories		Lower-Order Categories
Satisfied/ Not Dissatisfied*	• Access to Resources		• Access to Resources
	• <i>Feeling Valued</i>		
	• <i>Acceptance of Culture</i>		

* These were *a priori* categories. Themes denoted in *italics* represent those that are exclusive to that group.

Three themes emerged for this category, namely “access to resources (to do my work)”, “feeling valued”, and “acceptance of the “sink or swim” culture”. The first emergent theme was applicable to both the High and Low AC groups, whereas “acceptance of the sink or swim culture” was unique to the High AC group.

Access to Resources

Positive comments that were made about support mostly alluded to having the required resources to enable the participant to achieve their work objectives. These were often expressed as tangible or material resources, such as access to venues, funds etc.

The following is a quote from Corrine that captures the idea that perceived support is largely linked to tangible resources:

My ideas of support are not based on perception, they are based on reality. I mean on practical things. So, my ideas of support are strongly linked to “Will a librarian help my student?”, “Do they provide adequate money to get people to go to conferences?” My ideas of support are based on those things. And whether they are [available], whether I can find them...

Feeling Valued

On the other hand, three High AC interviewees perceived support differently, in that they felt personally valued by agents of the institution. It might be useful to point out that all three had published extensively, and therefore had attained a degree of internal “status” in their

departments. As an example of feeling valued, Paul (Faculty of Commerce) stated that he enjoyed a high level of professional support directly from the most senior executives. This is his quote:

If I want to contact the vice chancellor, he will respond to me... I find it to be a responsive institution. I think that they respond to me because they know what I'm doing. They understand what I'm doing, and they believe in what I'm doing.

Acceptance of the "Sink or Swim" Culture

The second theme suggested that the institution has a "sink or swim" culture, which is acceptable to High AC respondents. There were several instances of this notion highlighted in the conversations. Thandi (Faculty of Engineering), for example, cited the need for resilience when she said:

The system is extremely strenuous; if you're not resilient it will spit you out.

Roger (Faculty of Commerce) mentioned that the "sink or swim" culture was something that the university was proud of, and even promoted, since it meant that only the most resilient people would stay:

Seamount University used to pride itself that people *want* to work here, people were self-driven and self-motivated, they would knock on doors and carve out a niche... So, the system was set up for no support, no "on-boarding", no help, and you made it on your own, but there was a "culture" in Seamount where it was a way of working. That's how it is here, that's how we get the people we want. The rest will walk away; those who want to be supported, [or] nurtured, they will leave this place.

Interestingly, the High AC group interviewees seemed to accept this culture with no resentment, believing that it was "the nature of academia", and that one should not expect otherwise. This sentiment is captured in the following quote by Bryan (Faculty of Humanities):

Every so often you know, one gets frustrated by things. But I don't think that that's unusual in academia. It's part of the job. It's part of the life we choose. You're not constantly getting patted on the back. If you want to come to work every day and be told you're valued, you are in the wrong profession altogether. That's not the way it works here. And that's not just Seamount University. That is everywhere [all over the world], because that is academia.

This theme highlighted a key difference between the High and Low AC groups. This sense of neither being nurtured nor valued is deemed acceptable to some as part of their chosen occupation, yet as will be seen next, is not acceptable to others.

5.3.3.2. Perceived Organisational Support: Dissatisfied

Table 41 POS – Dissatisfied

Construct: Perceived Organisational Support*		
First-Order Category	High Commitment Respondents Lower-Order Categories	Low Commitment Respondents Lower-Order Categories
Dissatisfied*	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Not Valued Equally - Faculties/courses</i> • <i>Insufficient Support for Young Academics</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Not Valued</i> • <i>Lack of Caring</i>

* These were *a priori* categories. Themes denoted in *italics* represent those that are exclusive to that group.

In the case of the theme “POS - Dissatisfied”, none of the second-order themes emerged as common to both groups, as can be seen in Table 41. In the case of the High AC group, emergent second-order themes comprised “not feeling equally valued” and “insufficient support for young or developing academics”, while for the Low AC group, the emergent second-order themes comprised only one theme, namely, “not feeling valued”.

Not Feeling Equally Valued

While participants in the High AC group generally seemed to have a sense of being valued by the institution, some of them perceived that certain positions, departments, disciplines or courses, were valued more than others. Corrine alluded to how the hierarchical nature of the institution brought this about:

It's not that I don't feel personally valued. My ideas have weight because I've been here for a while, but I can't even imagine the hierarchy at play with a doctor, with professional hierarchies and then still the academic hierarchies. It's not that I as an individual don't [feel valued], but I'm in an environment where everyone's idea is not equal. But it's simply because we're in an institution that functions on rank. Like the military.

Bryan's quote below illustrates the perception that certain research areas are valued over others:

There are always people who feel like their research area is not as valued for whatever reason. You know that there are people who are getting big money to do their research. And I'm not. So why is that?

Finally, this example from Theresa, highlights the perception that some courses are seen by the institution to be more valuable than others and therefore receive more support from the institution:

Support? I think that has to do with what you teach...

Theresa proceeds to describe her course/programme and then continues:

It's our external examiners; it's our panel from industry, that in fact value us more [than the institution...].

Insufficient Support for Young or Developing Academics

This sub-theme emerged where participants spoke about their struggles to “find their feet” when they joined the institution. This is not surprising considering the “sink or swim culture” previously discussed. Very little guidance was reportedly given in terms of expectations regarding the job, with respect to both teaching and research. Other examples of insufficient support for developing academics included the lack of guidance regarding both the ad hominem promotion process, as well as funding. In a couple of instances, participants had been unaware of funding opportunities which they would have been eligible to apply for. The following quote from Xolani (Faculty of Humanities) testifies to this:

I had to find my own support, which I have now found at the Postgraduate Office; but I knocked on their doors and had to find them!

Not Feeling Valued

Three Low AC interviewees expressed strong dissatisfaction related to their belief that academics are not sufficiently valued. Salary disbursements to faculty had been somewhat curtailed in a climate of ‘austerity measures’, while at the same time academics were put under huge pressure to publish more. Margaret’s quote alludes to dissatisfaction with recent salary increases:

I think they look at the person who's screaming the loudest and put in a band aid solution to shut them up and it's never the academic staff that are screaming the loudest... The academic staff got the worst increases... a signal of how undervalued academic staff are.

Lack of Caring

A final remark needs to be made regarding the findings for POS. The measurement scale for POS included the following item: “Seamount University really cares about my well-being”. There was negligible, if any, indication that the institution was considered “caring” in any way. However, Thandi, a young academic from the Faculty of Engineering, spoke of how she

had experienced caring and mentoring by one individual when she was enduring a difficult time. This experience reportedly had a huge impact on her. Similarly, Corrine mentioned two Professors who had provided her with support and mentorship over the years, in terms of her research output and becoming a better teacher. It is perhaps worth noting that both these individuals had high scores for AC. Yet it is debatable as to whether these individual instances of caring can be classified as “organisational” support.

This concludes the findings for the construct of POS, having elaborated on the key themes that emerged from the data. The last section in this chapter discusses the findings of the final construct in the model, and the second of the two independent variables, namely PER.

5.3.4. Perceived External Reputation

The inquiry into PER covered three broad areas. Firstly, it intended to establish what the different dimensions of external reputation meant to the respondents. Was “research and teaching” the only important dimension, or did any of the others matter? This was particularly important to know given the much higher score that was attributed to the “Quality of research and teaching” dimension, relative to the others, in the quantitative survey results. Secondly, it was vital to understand the salience of PER to the academic, i.e. did it matter? And thirdly, because of the content analysis results of the embedded open-ended questions in the Phase One survey, the reputational impact of the FMF student protests was of interest. These three categories comprising “Comparison of reputation dimensions”, “Salience of PER” and “Impact of student protests” will now be discussed individually.

5.3.4.1. Comparison of Reputation Dimensions

Interviewees were asked to select which of the five aspects of reputation, i.e. “Quality of Management's Leadership”; “Innovativeness”; “Ability to Attract, Develop and Retain Faculty”; “Responsibility towards the Community and Environment”; and “Quality of Research & Teaching”, they perceived to be of the greatest importance to themselves as academics.

Table 42 summarises the findings pertaining to the category of “Comparison of Reputation Dimensions”.

Table 42 Comparison of Reputation Dimensions

Construct: Perceived External Reputation*		
First-Order Category	High Commitment Respondents Lower-Order Categories	Low Commitment Respondents Lower-Order Categories
Reputation Dimensions*	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Research and Teaching - Instrumental - <i>Influences other</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Research and Teaching - Instrumental

* These were *a priori* categories. Themes denoted in *italics* represent those that are exclusive to that group.

Interviewees from both the High and Low AC groups largely agreed that the “Quality of Research and Teaching” (QRT) was the aspect of reputation that mattered most to them. The explanations given for ranking the QRT as the most important dimension were twofold: Firstly, both the High and Low AC groups provided many instrumental/material reasons such as “for our university rankings”, “for access to conferences, top tier journals, and funding opportunities”, and “for marketing purposes”. Secondly, some of the High AC participants believed that research and teaching influences the other dimensions. For example, a good reputation for research and teaching would help to attract and retain faculty, and would imply innovativeness. A few participants suggested that, unless the institution was widely perceived to be doing something wrong regarding any of the other four dimensions (aside from QRT), these other dimensions — while important — were not of major concern.

The quote below from Paul (Faculty of Commerce) provides an overview of his perceptions of three of the different reputation dimensions, emphasising the importance of the QRT while providing good context for the reader:

I don't think the quality of management in any of the [South African] universities is brilliant at the moment. It seems to be very difficult to retain very good people at top leadership levels. The competitiveness of South African universities in terms of attracting staff has declined quite a lot in relation to the institutions that we would see as our international peers, because of the value of the currency and the political uncertainty. [Seamount's still] a good institution to work in; unless there was a serious deterioration in the quality of research and teaching, the others [other reputation dimensions] wouldn't worry me enormously.

5.3.4.2. Salience of Perceived External Reputation

Table 43 shows the templates for the category of the “Salience of PER”.

Table 43 *Salience of PER*

Construct: Perceived External Reputation*			
First-Order Category	High Commitment Respondents		Low Commitment Respondents
	Lower-Order Categories		Lower-Order Categories
Salience*	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Instrumentality <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Conferences - Other opportunities - Recognition Primacy of Own Academic Reputation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Career stage 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Instrumentality <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Conferences - Other opportunities - Recognition - Students caliber - Quality colleagues Primacy of Own Academic Reputation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Career stage

* These were *a priori* categories. Themes denoted in *italics* represent those that are exclusive to that group.

This category pertains to whether, and if so, why, external reputation matters to the academic. The question asked was “Does what outsiders think about Seamount University matter to you?” It must be noted that when participants spoke about this, they were generally referring to the academic reputation of the institution due its strong international rankings, rather than taking account of the multidimensionality of the institution’s reputation. This was despite them having a laminated handout reminding them of the five dimensions.

Comments like this one from Corrine reinforced this perception:

...because that's how your reputation is measured internationally, by research outputs.

The themes that emerged for both High and Low AC groups were “instrumentality”, and “promotion of personal academic reputation”.

Instrumentality of Institution’s Reputation

In the same way participants regarded the institution’s reputation for QRT to be important, the reasons for caring about what outsiders think of the institution were also closely related to instrumental or material benefits — both tangible and intangible. “Access to conferences” was frequently cited, as well as “access to funding”, and “publication opportunities in better journals”. To a lesser degree, positive recognition from peers, as well as the academic’s social

milieu, was alluded to. The quality of students and colleagues who would be attracted to the institution was also cited as a reason that outsiders' opinions count. Peter (Faculty of Commerce) alludes to some of these aspects in the following quote:

I think that [reputation] matters for recruitment purposes; when you get applications and you can pick a higher quality of candidate, and when you're putting in for conferences, papers, things like that, the fact that you work at a good university matters ... If you're trying to reach out to international partners, and your email comes from Seamount University, more people will read your email than if it came from some university they had never heard of. You get a foot in the door because of the university's reputation.

Paul's quote reinforces the points made about both conferences and recognition:

It's a good feeling to know that you're at a university that has some world recognition, that when you go elsewhere, conferences and what not, people are going to recognise it.

Primacy of Personal Academic Reputation

Both High and Low AC groups alluded to the relative importance of the academic's personal reputation or brand, versus that of the institution. The reputation of the institution only seemed to matter insofar as it affected their personal academic career. Highlighting this individualistic perspective, one High AC participant offered an analogy with entrepreneurs:

...We are single entrepreneurs who have chosen to work together in one building. We're not a unit, for example, we're not Old Mutual⁴⁵; we are not cohesive. So, when you lambast Seamount, it's not my reputation [that's affected].

Linked closely to this was the role of career stage in determining the perceived importance of the external reputation. A few participants referred to this, suggesting specifically that their institution's reputation would be/has been more important to them at earlier stages of their career, when their own reputation would not yet have been established. The quote below from Roger captures this notion:

I believe, like organisations, we have a lifecycle in our careers as academics... In the early part of your career, and certainly the early part of my career, it was very important to me how people viewed Seamount University... But I think that through your career, as you grow your reputation, it becomes less of an institutional reputation, and more your own personal reputation.

⁴⁵ Old Mutual is a well-known corporate organization in South Africa, with an established brand.

5.3.4.3. Impact of Student Protests

The final category relating to PER is that of the “Impact of Student Protests”. Table 44 shows the templates for this category.

Table 44 *Impact of Student Protests*

Construct: Perceived External Reputation*			
First-Order Category*	High Commitment Respondents		Low Commitment Respondents
	Lower-Order Categories		Lower-Order Categories
Impact*	• <i>Reputation Still Intact</i>		• <i>Reputation Suffered</i>

* These were *a priori* categories. Themes denoted in *italics* represent those that are exclusive to that group.

Regarding the question about what impact the recent FMF student protests has had on the reputation of the institution, participants in the High AC group generally felt that the impact was minimal. The three interviewees in the Low AC group, however, believed differently. The content analysis of the open-ended survey questions suggested more perceptions of a negative impact than what is reflected here. Nevertheless, the Phase One content analysis finding that blame for any reputational impact or damage should be assigned to the management of the crisis (i.e. decisions taken by executive leadership), rather than to the crisis itself, was mostly corroborated here.

Reputation Still Intact

Four participants who held that there was a minimal fallout from the protests, spoke of reputation as being hard-earned, robust, and therefore not easily eroded. Some participants believed that the institution’s leadership had taken the brunt of the criticism due to the way the executive handled the protests. As such, the reputation of leadership may have suffered, but the participants did not think that this would affect the overall reputation of the institution. Some participants argued that leaders had limited tenure and would therefore be replaced in time. However, if leadership issues persisted over a long period of time, it was suggested that this could ultimately affect the institution’s reputation.

Another view was that the protests’ impact on reputation had a more “local” effect and that the institution’s reputation was unharmed in the eyes of international peers. Bryan’s quote demonstrates the belief that it would take much more than the transient poor management of a

situation for the university's executive leadership to negatively affect the institution's reputation:

These [university leaders] are the stewards of the reputation so they have to keep things going and have to develop it. But it's really difficult for them to do something that makes the reputation really just fall off a cliff.

Reputation Has Suffered

On the other hand, three participants from the Low AC group believed that the institution's reputation had been negatively affected by the protests, as this quote from Margaret demonstrates:

I would imagine so because Seamount University in particular has had really bad press. And I think you would have to live under a rock not to know that Seamount is taking a lot of flak. Almost every day there's something in the paper.

This discussion regarding PER concludes the section that described the findings pertaining to each of the four constructs in the proposed conceptual model. The next section provides an integration of both the quantitative and the qualitative findings, presented in the form of "joint display tables".

5.4. Integration of Results: Interpreting the Constructs

This section provides an integration of both the quantitative and the qualitative findings from both phases of the study to interpret each construct in the context of this study. This integration is presented in a series of joint display tables, simultaneously displaying specific quantitative results together with the relevant qualitative findings. The first set of tables show the overall mean scores and standard deviations for each of the four constructs. To avoid unnecessary repetition in the thesis, the consolidated joint display table for all four constructs can be found in Appendix R. In addition to the overall joint display tables that pertain to each of the constructs, individual item joint display tables for OID, POS and PER are presented that focus on individual item mean scores with values that stood out as being either particularly high or low compared with the overall construct mean score in each case.

5.4.1. Affective Commitment: Integrated Results

Table 45 shows the integrated findings for the construct, AC. It shows the value of the overall mean score and corresponding standard deviation, together with the key themes and/or quotes

that may help explain what underlies this score. Since all the individual items corresponding to the AC scale were relatively on par with each other, only the overall score is displayed.

Table 45 Joint Display Table: Affective Commitment

Overall Mean & SD	Themes & Quotes from Qualitative Findings
AC: $\bar{x} = 3.43$; $\sigma_{\bar{x}} = 0.803$ Min 1 = 1; Max = 5 Score of 3 = neutral	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Alignment of Values <i>I'm working in the right place because all our work seeks to contribute to upliftment of society.</i> • Work Experience/Environment - Positive <i>The top thing about working at Seamount University is the freedom of my time. ... an opportunity to collaborate with a whole lot of different things.</i> • Work Experience/Environment - Negative <i>Administrative loads are being progressively devolved and stealing research time.</i> • Sentimental Ties <i>Seamount University is my home. Ten years...I've been through ups and downs with this place.</i> • Non-organisational Commitment Targets <i>My commitment is to who I work with... Commitment means doing my job properly and to the best of my ability.</i> • Institutional Characteristics <i>...I suppose like any large bureaucracy it's an inflexible institution.</i>

The overall mean score for AC (3.43) was not considered high given that 3 represents a neutral score. The themes, “alignment of values”, “work experience/environment - positive”, and “sentimental ties”, may explain commitment scores above neutral. These themes suggest that value congruence; positive work experiences such as autonomy, academic freedom and good working relationships with colleagues; and having sentimental ties to the institution, may promote commitment.

The theme, “non-organisational commitment targets”, may have opposing influences on AC. On the one hand, a few academics in the study were unequivocal about their commitment being specifically related only to foci other than that of the institution itself — such as the academic occupation, colleagues, and/or research projects — and did not merge or confuse

these different commitments. Alternatively, it is possible that the manifestation of AC, while not being truly directed to “the institution” as such, may rather be conferred to it through the commitment felt towards other foci.

Themes that may have related negatively to the AC score include: “work experience/environment – negative”, encompassing contextual issues related to academics’ work experience such as increasing workload and administration; and “institutional characteristics” alluding to the bureaucratic/hierarchical characteristics of the institution.

5.4.2. Organisational Identification: Integrated Results

Table 46 displays the integrated findings for the construct, OID. It shows the value of the overall mean score, the corresponding standard deviation, and the key explanatory elements from the qualitative analysis.

Table 46 Joint Display Table: Organisational Identification

Overall Mean & SD	Themes & Quotes from Qualitative Findings
OID: $\bar{x} = 3.26$; $\sigma_{\bar{x}} = 0.716$ Min = 1; Max = 5 Score of 3 = neutral	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Nostalgic/Idealistic Associations <i>I came to Seamount University because it was standing up against apartheid...</i> • No Personal History with the Institution <i>I don't feel a deep sense of belonging because I didn't do my undergraduate studies here.</i> • Pride in Membership <i>When you tell people that you're an academic at Seamount University...there is a kind of legitimacy in society that comes with that.</i> • Occupation, Role or Discipline Identification <i>... our identity as academics is wrapped up in what we do...</i> • Fragmented Institution <i>Like any big institution, Seamount University's massive... I do think about the broader university, but not as a whole university.</i> <i>We're not quite sure what Seamount University stands for at this point.</i>

The overall mean score for OID was 3.26. Given that a score of 3 is neutral, a mean score of 3.26 is close to neutral, suggesting that the respondents in the study generally did not have a strong sense of identification with the institution.

Firstly, the themes, “nostalgic/idealistic associations”, as well as (conversely) “no personal history with the institution”, both suggest that the academics in this sample might be more likely to identify with the institution where some personal history or association is present. Similarly, the theme, “pride in membership”, from the qualitative findings may contribute to the OID score being above neutral, i.e. where OID does indeed exist, since OID is promoted when an individual’s self-esteem is enhanced via organisational membership.

On the other hand, the theme labelled “the fragmented institution”, including the sub-themes, “identification with own faculty or department”, “different in-groups”, and “lack of clear institutional identity”, may help to explain why OID is generally low. Similarly, the theme, “identification with occupation, role or discipline”, suggests that interviewees identified more strongly with their occupation, role and/or discipline than they did with the institution. Both these themes and their sub-themes allude to a lack of coherence or unity within the institution.

Table 47 shows the mean score for one of the individual items that had a particularly low score relative to the other items in the OID scale⁴⁶. These scores are shown alongside the themes and/or quotes that may help explain what underlies them.

Table 47 Joint Display Table: Organisational Identification Item_1

Overall Mean & SD	Themes & Quotes from Qualitative Findings
Item: OID_1: “When someone criticises ... it feels like a personal insult” $\bar{x} = 2.8$; $\sigma_{\bar{x}} = 1.188$ Min = 1; Max = 5 OID overall $\bar{x} = 3.26$	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Evaluates Legitimacy of Criticism <i>People on the outside don't always know what's going on inside</i> Primacy of Personal Reputation <i>We're not a unit, for example, we're not Old Mutual, we are not cohesive. So, when you lambast Seamount, it's not my reputation [that's affected].</i>

⁴⁶ Comparisons between “higher” or “lower” scores are merely descriptive since statistical tests were not done to determine whether the scores were significantly higher or lower than the comparable scores. This caveat applies throughout this chapter.

The low mean score for Item OID_1, representing “*When someone criticises Seamount University, it feels like a personal insult*” can best be explained by the theme, “evaluates legitimacy of criticism”. Item OID_1 had the lowest score of all the items in the scale⁴⁷. The qualitative findings indicated that this was because outsiders’ criticism was generally viewed with scepticism, with the legitimacy of the criticism being questioned. Items OID_1, OID_5 and OID_6, all relate to reactions to some form of judgement by outsiders and are therefore also likely to be explained by this theme (i.e. “evaluates legitimacy of criticism”). The other reason the qualitative study found for not taking criticism personally, is captured by the theme, “primacy of personal reputation”, which refers to the relative importance of academics’ personal reputation. This suggests that the salience of their organisational membership was reduced, and any criticism of the institution would therefore have less impact on their OID.

5.4.3. Perceived Organisational Support: Integrated Results

Table 48 displays the integrated findings for the construct POS. It shows the value of the overall mean score and the corresponding standard deviation, together with the themes that may help explain what underlies this score. It also includes the two items that had mean scores lower than that of the overall mean.

Table 48 Joint Display Table: Perceived Organisational Support

Overall Mean & SD	Themes & Quotes from Qualitative Findings
POS: $\bar{x} = 2.88$; $\sigma_{\bar{x}} = 1.140$ Min = 1, Max = 5 Score of 3 = neutral	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Not Feeling Valued or Not Equally Valued <i>If you want to come to work every day and be told you're valued, you are in the wrong profession altogether.</i> <i>You know that there are people who are getting big money to do their research. And I'm not.</i> Lack of Organisational Support⁴⁸ <i>Many of us ... feel that the “University” does not have our back.</i> <i>I have the feeling that it makes no difference what I do.</i>

⁴⁷ For all the tables in this chapter, mention of “higher” or “lower” scores are merely descriptive since statistical tests were not done to determine whether the scores were significantly higher or lower.

⁴⁸ This theme and the associated quote are from Phase One’s open-ended questions — refer to “Embedded Qualitative Results” (section 5.2).

The overall score for POS was below neutral, being 2.88 where 3 is neutral. This indicated that the academics in the study generally did not feel supported by the institution. The key themes that may add insight to this result include “not feeling valued”, “not feeling equally valued”, and “lack of organisational support”. Accounts of not feeling valued, or of feeling that academics were “not equally valued” by the institution’s management, are themes that may also have contributed to the low mean score. Table 49 expands on the two items with the lowest scores, which would have contributed most to the low overall mean score.

Table 49 Joint Display Table: Perceived Organisational Support Item_2 and Item_3

Overall Mean & SD	Themes & Quotes from Qualitative Findings
Item: POS_2: “... really cares about my well-being” $\bar{x} = 2.58$; $\sigma_{\bar{x}} = 1.092$ Min = 1; Max = 5 PER overall $\bar{x} = 2.88$	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “Sink or Swim” Culture <i>... those who want to be supported, or nurtured, they will leave this place...</i>
Item: POS_3 “...strongly considers my goals and values” $\bar{x} = 2.65$; $\sigma_{\bar{x}} = 0.993$ Min = 1; Max = 5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Insufficient Support for Young and/or Developing Academics <i>I had to find my own support, which I have now found at the postgraduate office; but I knocked on their doors and had to find them!</i>

The low mean score for item POS_2, “*Seamount University really cares about my well-being*”, appeared to be explained by the theme “sink or swim culture”. Furthermore, there was no mention of feeling cared for, at any stage during the discussion, by any of the interviewees. As indicated by the theme labelled “insufficient support for young/developing academics”, Item POS_ 3 representing “*Seamount University strongly considers my goals and values*” suggested that support in the form of career development might be lacking.

5.4.4. Perceived External Reputation: Integrated Results

Table 50 reveals the integrated findings for the construct, PER. It shows the value of the overall mean score and corresponding standard deviation. Although in this case there were no themes directly related to the level of the overall PER score per se, there were comments that provided insights regarding the importance (or lack thereof) of PER. These will be highlighted and discussed.

Table 50 Joint Display Table: Perceived External Reputation

Overall Mean & SD	Themes & Quotes from Qualitative Findings
PER: $\bar{x} = 6.26$; $\sigma_{\bar{x}} = 0.861$ Min = 0; Max = 10	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Instrumental Value of Institution's Reputation <i>You get a foot in the door because of the university's reputation.</i> • Role of Career Stage <i>...But through your career, as you grow your own reputation, it becomes less of an institutional reputation, and more about your own personal reputation.</i>

The mean score of 6.26 for PER was not high, given that the neutral point in this scale is 5. The PER measure comprised only five items, of which three were ranked at approximately the same mediocre level as the overall mean. Qualitative findings regarding the value of PER seemed to be largely associated with “academic reputation” as a result of international rankings, rather than a more generalised view of the institution’s reputation as intended by the operationalisation of PER. In light of this interpretation, PER only seemed to represent a “means to an end” for the academics in this study, as was captured by the theme, “instrumental value of the institution’s reputation”. A strong academic reputation can help to facilitate access to conferences, top tier journals, etc. and can attract good students and colleagues. The theme, “role of career stage”, suggests that PER might only be important to academics at certain times in their careers. Once academics have established their own academic reputation, the institution’s reputation may be of lesser value.

Table 51 shows the themes and quotes related to the two dimensions with the most extreme mean scores, namely “Quality of Management’s Leadership” (PER_1) and “Quality of Research and Teaching” (PER_5). PER_1 had the lowest mean score — being well below the overall mean score — while PER_5 had the highest mean score, being well above that of the overall mean score.

Table 51 Joint Display Table: Perceived External Reputation Item_1 and Item_5

Overall Mean & SD	Themes & Quotes from Qualitative Findings
Item: PER_1: Quality of Management’s Leadership $\bar{x} = 5.01$; $\sigma_{\bar{x}} = 2.297$ Min = 0; Max 10 PER overall $\bar{x} = 6.26$	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Management’s Handling of Student Protests⁴⁹ <i>Our reputation has tumbled outside due to the executive giving clemency to the students involved in violence over the last 2 years.</i>
Item: PER_5: Quality of Research and Teaching $\bar{x} = 7.87$; $\sigma_{\bar{x}} = 1.426$ Min = 0; Max 10	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Instrumental Value of Institution’s Reputation <i>It's good to feel that you're at a university that has some world recognition, and that when you go to conferences, people are going to recognise it...</i>

Quite a few issues were raised in the qualitative data pertaining to dissatisfaction with the institution’s management, specifically alluding to the way that management was perceived to have handled the student protests. These were captured in the theme, “management’s handling of student protests”, which was generally perceived in a negative light. However, albeit that the overall perception was not positive, the relatively large standard deviation around the mean score for this item suggests that there were differences in opinions about the quality of management’s leadership.

Item PER_5, referring to the “quality of research and teaching”, was found in the qualitative study to be the most important dimension of external reputation, and this item had the highest mean score. Again, the theme, “instrumentality of the institutions’ reputation”, is relevant here, providing an indication of why this dimension was considered to be the most important one to the academics in this study.

⁴⁹ This theme and the associated quote are from Phase One’s open-ended questions — refer to “Embedded Qualitative Results” (section 5.2).

5.5. Conclusion

This concludes the chapter that has presented the results of Phases One and Two. Firstly, the quantitative results from the Phase One survey were presented. The results of the CFA analysis for each construct were provided, as were the overall structural model assessment and results. Thereafter, the embedded qualitative results, emerging from content analysis of the open-ended survey questions, were shown. A template analysis, applied thematically to the interview findings from Phase Two's qualitative study, was then provided. Finally, the integrated findings from the quantitative and qualitative results from both phases of the study were displayed in joint display tables. The next chapter will discuss these integrated findings, augmented with relevant literature.

CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSION

6.1. Introduction

This study investigated the concurrent effects of perceived organisational support (POS) and perceived external reputation (PER) on both the organisational identification (OID) and affective commitment (AC) of academics at a South African university. The overarching research question that the study addressed was:

How do academics' perceptions of institutional support, and of how outsiders' view their university, simultaneously influence their identification with, and commitment to, their university?

This question was broken down into three sub-questions:

1. How does academics' identification with their institutions affect their organisational commitment?
2. How do academics' perceptions of institutional support affect their identification with, and commitment to, their institution?
3. How do academics' perceptions of outsiders' views of their university affect their identification with, and commitment to, their institution?

This chapter holistically discusses the study's findings, with the aim of answering these questions. Throughout, the discussion integrates the Phase One quantitative results; the Phase One qualitative findings that emerged from the open-ended survey questions; and the Phase Two qualitative findings from the face-to-face interviews — while augmenting the discussion with relevant literature. The chapter begins with the contextualisation of the two dependent constructs in the study, namely AC and OID. Thereafter, each of the three main research questions are answered in turn, interspersed with a detailed discussion of the two independent constructs, POS and PER, where relevant.

6.2. Affective Commitment: Contextualisation and Influences

AC is the ultimate dependent construct in this study. Contextualising its meaning in the context of the study assisted with the interpretation of the relationships found between AC and the other constructs that were tested simultaneously. Although the overall mean score for AC ($\bar{x} = 3.43$; $\sigma_{\bar{x}} = 0.803$) was not considered high — since the average AC was scored higher than neutral in the survey — the quantitative results have shown that, albeit not strongly, some commitment does exist at this higher education institution. However, the manifestation of commitment to the institution may be somewhat different for some academics compared with how organisational commitment may be perceived by employees in the private sector. For example, in the context of this study, AC may not be “true” affective organisational commitment towards the institution, i.e. including an element of emotion, but rather conferred to it through the commitment felt toward other foci. In the interviews, when academics described their feelings of commitment to the institution, they invariably started speaking about their **commitment to more proximal commitment foci** such as their students, immediate teams, their Head of Department, their department, or their faculty. Based on their scores for AC, “High AC” and “Low AC” participants varied slightly in their commitment foci; yet in both cases, almost none of the academics declared the institution as the focus of their commitment. Other studies have drawn on Lewin’s (1943) “field theory” to explain mediation effects whereby AC to more proximal entities promotes commitment to the more distal entities such as the organisation (Bentein, Stinglhamber, & Vandenberghe, 2002; Klein, Becker, et al., 2009; Yalabik, Swart, Kinnie, & van Rossenberg, 2017). Field theory holds that because of the physical proximity and frequency of interactions with proximal entities such as work groups, these local entities have more influence in shaping employee behaviours than the relatively distal organisation. Similarly, employees tend to be less committed to distal foci with which they have less engagement (Bentein et al., 2002). The study’s findings suggest that academics, like other employees, tend to be less directly committed to the institution, being a more distal entity, but that their commitments to proximal entities might influence their behaviour more.

Both the High AC and Low AC academics in the study had a stronger **commitment towards their occupation**. Whether interviewees spoke of commitment to their research project, their teaching, their scientific discipline, or to academia as an occupation/profession, it seemed clear that this was the primary focus of their commitment. Several authors allude to the

centrality of academics' commitment to their work, their dedication to academic scholarship, and their professional values (Calvert, Lewis, & Spindler, 2011; McNaughton & Billot, 2016). Bellamy, Morley and Watty (2003) proclaimed that "[it] has been said that academic work retains the fundamental nature of a calling, although not in any religious sense" (p. 17). Given this interpretation, AC in academics could conceivably be channelled through occupational commitment, to the extent that the institution enables the academic's occupational aspirations to flourish. In a study of Turkish academics, occupational commitment was found to be strongly linked to AC (Cetin, 2006), supporting the latter conjecture.

Alignment of personal and institutional values was another factor that both High AC and Low AC participants highlighted as being a contributor to AC. **Value congruence** is associated with "person-organisation fit", occurring when employees' priorities and beliefs are similar to those of their employers (Kurtessis et al., 2017). Greguras and Diefendorff (2009) found that person-organisation fit influenced affective commitment through autonomy, relatedness, and competence need satisfaction. The authors proposed that in line with person-environment fit theory — when employees' and organisations' values are aligned — the conditions that enable employees to satisfy their basic psychological needs are more likely to be met. Meeting these psychological needs in turn leads to positive employee outcomes. Conversely, where values are not aligned, the lack of value congruence may adversely impact AC. In his study on the identities of "managed academics", Winter (2009) asserted that academics who resist managerialism and experience "values incongruence" will disengage with their institution, instead demonstrating more commitment to their discipline than to the institution. An example of "values incongruence" that surfaced in the qualitative component of this study pertained to the tension between research and teaching, although this was not tested in the survey. This tension is widely recognised in literature on academic life (Houston, Meyer, & Paewai, 2006; Shin & Jung, 2014) since it causes role and time management conflict, amongst other challenges.

Both High AC and Low AC participants suggested similar work experience factors that fostered AC, while agreeing on others that diminished it. **Work experience factors**, such as **autonomy and academic freedom**, positive relationships with colleagues, and the institution's geographical location, were mentioned when speaking positively about commitment to the institution. Autonomy and academic freedom are recognised to be valued attributes of the academic profession (Bellamy et al., 2003; Capelleras, 2005; Houston et al., 2006; Taylor, 1999). Blackmore and Kandiko (2011) recognised the academic's "preference

for autonomy and independence and the preference for having achieved something by one's own efforts" (2011, p. 401) in terms of their intrinsic motivation. This aspect manifested in this study too, as evidenced by interviewees' remarks in this regard.

On the other hand, accounts of **heavy workloads and increased administration** seemed to be eroding the commitment of both High AC and Low AC academics. It is well known that academics are motivated through intrinsic rewards such as the degree and variety of meaningful work, while external factors may cause dissatisfaction (Capelleras, 2005; Houston et al., 2006). Since AC is closely linked to both motivation (Gagné & Howard, 2016) and job satisfaction (Klein & Brinsfield, 2016), heavy workloads, increased administration, as well as unpopular decisions made by the managing executive team, may adversely impact on AC. A theme that emerged from the Low AC group was that of **resistance to change**, where the need for blended learning and curriculum changes seemed threatening to a few participants, and potentially impacted on their intrinsic motivation and their commitment, respectively. Finally, the **perceived hierarchical and bureaucratic nature of the institution** may also play a negative role, echoing much of what has been discussed in the literature regarding the commitment of academics. Bureaucratic control of academics brings mistrust and diminishes commitment, especially when that control conflicts with the autonomy of academics (Dearlove, 2002; Winter et al., 2000).

In summing up how AC manifested in the context of this study, it seemed that AC does exist, but in a limited way: The qualitative findings suggest that it may not be an *organisational AC* that was evidenced, but rather an AC transferred to the organisation by association, because of being committed to other — related, but more proximal — commitment foci, such as colleagues who work there, dedication to academia, the research projects facilitated by the institution and so forth. Alternatively, where value congruence and person-organisation fit existed, or where people experienced personal or sentimental life events at the institution, it is possible that "true" affective organisational commitment may have been present. Undoubtedly, specific work experiences are crucial to the development of AC in academics. While factors like autonomy, academic freedom and location may positively influence commitment, other factors such as heavy workloads, increased administration, bureaucracy and hierarchy can be detrimental. Moreover, some of these factors highlighted in the findings might not necessarily have been attributable to the institution specifically (e.g. location), while others, for instance, the amount of administration an academic was expected to do, would have been. The latter are therefore more controllable by the institution's management.

Overall, these findings suggest that there are many ways that managers of academics might encourage commitment to develop. Firstly, fostering relationships within research teams, departments, and faculties, might help build commitment to those proximal entities, which might in turn lead to AC towards the institution. Secondly, a reduction in administration workloads and the bureaucratic demands placed on academics might diminish the erosion of commitment. Closely linked to this, commitment is likely to be at least more stable if academics are allowed to retain the autonomy and academic freedom they hold so dear.

6.3. Organisational Identification: Contextualisation and Influences

OID is the second dependent variable in the study. The OID mean score ($\bar{x} = 3.26$; $\sigma\bar{x} = 0.716$) was close to neutral (a score of 3), suggesting that the respondents in the study generally did not have a strong sense of identification with the institution. In order to better understand how OID influences AC (Research Question 1), the construct of OID will first be unpacked, based on the integrated results that were presented in joint display tables. The construct is contextualised as it manifests in this study, and the factors that might influence its development are discussed.

Where High AC academics had a **personal history** with the institution, the institution appeared to play a greater role in terms of their self-identity. Similarly, when High AC held **idealistic aspirations** of what the institution stood for, their organisational membership appeared more meaningful. Ashforth and Mael (1989) posited that factors like “similarity, shared goals, and common history” affect group formation, which somewhat supports this finding. Furthermore, He et al. (2014) cited that “OID occurs when an individual’s identity as an organizational member is salient to his/her self-definitional need, and when the person’s self-concept has many attributes similar to his/her perceived organizational identity” (p. 4). Accordingly, these idealistic associations could arguably assist with the formation of positive meta-stereotypes that “are impressions that group members expect members of a relevant out-group to hold of the in-group” (Owuamalam & Zagefka, 2011, p. 528). If institution members are viewed as the “in-group”, and are seen to possess certain desirable characteristics, then positive meta-stereotypes would form. Social identity theory (SIT) posits that when organisational meta-stereotypes are positive, identification with the institution can help enhance the organisational member’s self-esteem by boosting their self-view (Dutton et al., 1994; He et al., 2014; Owuamalam & Zagefka, 2011).

Both High AC and Low AC participants suggested that one of the more positive associations participants has with “belonging” to the institution was related to **pride in membership**. According to Ngo, Loi, Foley, Zheng, and Zhang (2013), employees’ feelings of pride attributed to an organisation is expected to lead to greater OID. In the case of a research-intensive university, like in the context of this study, it is likely that the pride would be associated with international research rankings. It therefore seems like a good idea for university management to internally and externally publicise their research success stories, to foster pride in membership among academics and boost their identification with the institution.

On the other hand, both High AC and Low AC academics alluded to the **fragmentation of the university**, which appeared to challenge the development of identification with the institution. In some instances, academics maintained that they did not know what the institution stood for, indicating the **lack of a clear organisational identity**. Albert and Whetten (1985) defined organisational identity as consisting of a central character, temporal continuity, and distinctiveness. This finding suggests that these elements may be somewhat lacking at this institution. Given the context of higher education in South Africa currently, this is hardly surprising. Shifts in demographics, roles, pedagogy, and so forth, may well result in an institution that does not have clear answers to the questions, “who are we” and “what sort of organisation is this” (Stensaker, 2015, p. 106). Fragmentation also manifested in the existence of **different in-groups**. Even High AC participants alluded to unwelcoming networks, or an environment that was not as inclusive as it could be. This might have worked against their identification with the institution. Belonging to a psychological ‘in-group’, a central concept in SIT (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Hogg & Terry, 2000), can profoundly impact loyalty to the group or organisation. Examples in the literature of different in-groups that have manifested in the current university climate are that of permanent academics compared with contractors (Webster & Mosoetsa, 2002), and “academic managers” versus “managed academics” (Winter, 2009). The issue of fragmentation is not unique to this higher education institution though. In a paper about reputation management in higher education, Suomi, Kuoppakangas, Hytti, Hampden-Turner, and Kangaslahti (2014) wrote about the challenges due to the “organisational complexity” of universities, both because of the different units, as well as the individual freedom afforded to academics. Van Knippenberg and Van Schie (2000) posited that the size of an organisation also plays a role in developing identification with it. The authors suggested that because identification with large groups implies “sameness” with numerous other people, identification with a relatively large group can

present a threat to individual distinctiveness. Thus, the size and complexity of this large institution might have diminished academics' development of OID.

Furthermore, both High AC and Low AC academics indicated the relative importance of their **identification with their occupation or discipline**, compared to identification with the institution. Blackmore and Kandiko (2011) posited that the influence of the academic's discipline and the associated disciplinary community seems to be a crucial feature of the academic identity. This was echoed by a recent study that claimed "[a] sense of citizenship was expressed more often in relation to one's academic discipline and/or professional group" compared with citizenship related to the institution (Bolden et al., 2014, p. 762).

Degn (2018) also noted that previous studies had emphasised "the salience of the discipline at the expense of the formal organization in identity narratives" of academics (p. 310). Additionally, research outcomes have become entwined with an academic's sense of self, emphasising individualism rather than promoting the collective (Alvesson & Spicer, 2017), and hence further undermining identity with the institution. The emphasis on advancement of the individual's own academic career was an underlying and pervasive theme in the qualitative findings, providing further evidence of the individualistic nature of the academic project. Therefore, it seemed from the findings that the salience of academics' "individual identities among peers" was greater than that of their institutional identities. Notwithstanding that a stronger identification with the occupation or discipline might detract from identification with the institution, it might still be possible for the institution to benefit therefrom. If strong disciplinary teams/units are built up and high calibre faculty are attracted to the institution, some degree of identification with the institution might grow, albeit indirectly, as a result.

Along similar lines, both High AC and Low AC participants reported feeling stronger **identification with their specific faculties or departments**, as opposed to feeling identified with the greater institution. If academics' departments or faculties were more salient to them than the institution was, they would be more likely to identify with the former, more proximal entity (Edwards & Peccei, 2010). Ullrich, Wieseke, Christ, Schulze, and Van Dick (2007) developed the "identity-matching principle", proposing that identification will be developed at the same level as that of its antecedents. Thus, if the drivers of identification are at the level of department or faculty, then identification will be formed at those "nested" levels, rather than at the level of the institution. Furthermore, identification "tends to be stronger for lower-order targets, that is, one's role/occupation, group/ team, and subunit, than for the higher order

target of the organization itself” since “life in organizations is experienced locally” (p. 365). However, according to Ashforth (2016), research has indicated that identification with the organisation tends to be positively and moderately correlated with identification with nested, and partially nested, targets. Additionally, Ashforth et al. (2008) suggested that when a more abstract or higher order entity, such as the institution in this case, has a very high status, identification tends to happen at the level of the more abstract, higher order, entity. Either way, it would seem prudent for university managers to take heed of Edwards and Peccei’s (2010) findings, since it might be pragmatic to foster identification at the more proximal levels, such as departments or faculties, in order to derive the benefits at an institutional level. For example, managers may create more identification from academics within these proximal units through sponsoring team building events or facilitating interdepartmental collaboration.

The measures for OID included two items relating to how respondents react to **insults/criticism from outsiders** or the media. It is expected that with high OID, if respondents identify strongly with the institution, they would react as if they had personally been insulted or criticised, since there is assumed to be an overlap in the individual’s self-identity and that of the institution. The quantitative results showed generally low mean scores for these items, reducing the overall OID mean score.

However, both High AC and Low AC academics reported that they **evaluated the legitimacy** of outsiders’ criticism. Where the views of outsiders or the media lacked legitimacy, these were met with either some **scepticism or a degree of neutrality**. According to Dutton, Dukerich and Harquail (1994), “organizational members sometimes have a distorted impression of what others believe, either believing their organization is perceived in a more positive or a more negative light than outsiders see it” (p. 249). The authors also advocated that employees strive to maintain consistency in their self-definition via their OID. Drawing on Heider’s (1958) “balance theory”, Bem’s (1967) “self-perception theory”, and Festinger’s (1957) “cognitive dissonance theory”, these authors therefore proposed that organisational members resolve inconsistencies by offering excuses or justifications. It is possible that this is a reason some of the academics in the study considered outsiders’ assessments to lack legitimacy. Ironically then, it could be that because the “insiders” do identify with the institution, that they downplay the credibility of outsiders’ assessments to maintain their self-concept. In this case, based on the mean scores obtained for the items related to reactions to outsiders’ criticism, the OID overall mean score in this study might have been lower than what would have reflected academics’ “true” OID.

In recapping how OID manifested in this context, it seems that unless the academic had a personal history with the institution or shared its ideals or vision, identification with the institution was primarily based on pride in membership, because of the legitimacy it gave its members relative to out-groups. The issue of academics in this study not taking criticism of the institution personally — since outsiders' opinions were thought to lack credibility or legitimacy — is a particularly interesting one. Alternatively, the very nature of an academic (or the academic identity) could be a reason for lower identification with the institution. To the extent that the academic's self-concept overlaps with that of his/her occupation as a researcher, teacher, subject matter expert; or his/her discipline, department or faculty; it could reduce the salience of identification with the institution. However, since literature posits that stronger identification with the institution might be channelled via these nested entities, it is possible that promoting academics' identification with their disciplines, departments or faculties could benefit the larger institution.

6.4. Influence of Organisational Identification on Affective Commitment

Research Question 1 asks: “How does academics' identification with their institutions affect their organisational commitment?”

Supporting Hypothesis 1, OID was found to be significantly and positively related to AC ($\beta = 0.375$; $p \leq 0.05$). This result agrees with one of the corollaries of SIT, which proposes that identification with an organisation increases support and commitment to it. When academics identify closely with the institution, their self-identity is partially based on that of the institution, for the benefit of enhancement to their self-esteem. As noted earlier, evidence of this from the qualitative findings took the form of pride in membership, where interviewees expressed a sense of pride at belonging to the institution and gained legitimacy in social situations because of their organisational membership. Feelings of pride attributed to an organisation leads to greater OID (Ngo et al., 2013). Furthermore, since institutional prestige is deemed to be important to academics (Blackmore & Kandiko, 2011; O'Meara & Bloomgarden, 2010), pride in membership might therefore offer one type of socio-emotional reward to academics. According to social exchange theory (SET, Mowday et al., 1982), this might induce reciprocation via AC.

One of the other ways that OID manifested for some academics in this study was because of prior idealistic associations with the institution. From a SIT perspective (Ashforth & Mael, 1989), these idealistic associations viewed as positive meta-stereotypes, can boost the academic's self-esteem, which leads to OID (Owuamalam & Zagefka, 2011). On the other hand, viewed through the lens of SET, AC might be offered in exchange for self-esteem enhancement, according to the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960). This suggests academics might value their organisational membership more, where institutions publicly espouse "ideals such as striving for social justice". Since they may "bask in the reflected glory" (Cialdini et al. 1976 as cited in Gonzalez & Chakraborty, 2012, p. 56) of the institution, and feel a greater sense of worth, this may in turn lead to increased commitment.

6.5. Perceived Organisational Support: Contextualisation and Influences

POS is the first of two independent variables proposed to influence AC and OID in this study. The overall mean score for POS ($\bar{x} = 2.88$; $\sigma_{\bar{x}} = 1.140$) was below neutral (where 3 equals neutral). This indicated that the academics in the study generally did not feel supported by the institution.

Only three of the High AC participants, reported **feeling valued**, or indicated that they perceived their contributions to be valued. It is worth noting that these three participants were all NRF-rated⁵⁰ researchers, hence enjoyed a degree of recognition or internal status. Altbach et al. (2009) claimed that in the academic profession, research is "typically the gold standard in terms of prestige and status" (p. 94). In general, there seemed to be a strong indication from the qualitative findings in both Phase One and Phase Two that the respondents did not feel valued by the institution. While three Low AC interviewees claimed that academic staff **do not feel valued at all**, a few believed that academics **are not valued equally**, detracting from perceptions of organisational support. Examples provided included academic seniority, specific faculties, or research areas, being valued more than others. Procedural justice, referring to perceptions of fairness of organisational procedures, constitutes an important driver of how employees evaluate their workplace experiences (Ngo et al., 2013), and this sense of "unfairness" in terms of the institution being seen to value staff differently might have impacted adversely on perceptions of organisational support.

⁵⁰ To be NRF-rated means being awarded a rating by the prestigious South African National Research Foundation.

When asked about their impressions of support from the institution, the participants mostly referred to **tangible aspects of support, such as resources, funds, and equipment**. Ngo et al. (2013) suggested that POS indicates to employees their organisation's willingness to provide the necessary means to carry out their duties effectively, which appeared to be true for the participants in this study. The findings suggest that higher education institutions might be more competent at providing material forms of support than they are at "softer" forms of support, involving people.

One of the items in the POS scale measured the extent to which the university cared for the well-being of the academic. This item had the lowest score in the POS scale. Therefore, it was unsurprising that there was **hardly any mention of caring** or emotional support in discussions relating to institutional support, apart from two academics who spoke of having had mentors. This may not be an uncommon occurrence. Another South African study of higher education academics found that 43% of the faculty perceived that they did not receive satisfactory emotional recognition (Theron et al., 2014).

Notwithstanding this, the "caring" aspect of POS might not be as salient in the academic context. It is possible that academics do not seek as much emotional support from their institution as other employees since they are more concerned with what Clarke, Knights, and Jarvis (2012) called their "labour of love", that is, their academic work. These authors suggested that where "the professional community of academia" was concerned, "engagement was its own justification and reward" (p. 14). In a similar vein, High AC participants spoke about the **"sink or swim" culture** that existed at the institution, and according to some, has always existed. These academics seemed to have complacently accepted this culture, and even appeared in favour of it. It could be that this acceptance of the lack of nurturing was linked to academics' appreciation of **autonomy**, discussed previously. Guerrero & Herrbach (2009) suggested that autonomy is a work experience that brings about perceptions of organisational support in some employees. Furthermore, it has been found that autonomy predicts POS (Edwards, 2009; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Despite changes brought about by managerialism, Clark and Sousa (2018) pointed out that academics still enjoy relative autonomy compared with other knowledge workers. Nevertheless, the findings suggested that **younger academics** might prefer more support. Despite being in the High AC category, academics in the early career phase spoke of insufficient support and a lack of "on-boarding" processes for new staff. In another South African study, Pienaar and Bester (2006) also found

evidence of insufficient support for young academics. Given the urgent need to retain early-stage academics, this is something that university management might wish to address.

Aside from autonomy, **value congruence**, mentioned previously, also appeared frequently in the High AC comments. Albeit associated with AC in the findings, it might also be an antecedent of POS since academics would feel that their values are being respected. A recent meta-study indeed found value congruence to be a predictor of POS (Kurtessis et al., 2017). According to Clark and Sousa (2018), academics are “particularly motivated by their personal values and volitions” (p. 18). Despite the low overall POS mean score, it is therefore possible that value congruence might have contributed to the scores of those respondents that perceived relatively more support.

Summing up my interpretation of POS in this context, it seems that “caring” is not part of how support is experienced in this institution. That is not to say that feeling cared for does not matter to academics, it simply does not seem to be available to them. Similarly, the perceived “sink or swim” culture, while ostensibly being accepted by some, indicates a perception of a lack of nurturing that might be of more concern in the case of younger academics. The sense of being valued was also met with mixed feelings, with elements of unfairness emerging from those discussions, and hence detracting from perceptions of support. Therefore, the qualitative data appears to indicate that where POS is present in the context of this study, it is mostly experienced in the form of the provision of resources, tangible or otherwise, that enable academics to do their work. Additionally, autonomy and value congruence may explain POS in this context. These manifestations of academics’ POS, i.e. having access to adequate resources, experiencing autonomy and value congruence, seem aligned to the pre-eminence of academics’ commitment to their work, and their strong academic identity. When higher education managers facilitate better working conditions, in which academics can thrive and perform their work more easily, it is likely to be favourably perceived, and interpreted as forms of institutional support.

6.6. Influences of Perceived Organisational Support

This section discusses Research Question Two: “How do academics’ perceptions of institutional support affect their identification with, and commitment to, their institution?” The influence of POS on AC will be discussed first.

6.6.1. Perceived Organisational Support on Affective Commitment

Supporting Hypothesis 2a, and in agreement with the literature on SET and organisational support theory (OST, Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), POS was found to be positively and significantly related to AC in this study ($\beta = 0.209$; $p \leq 0.05$). According to principles of both SET and OST, to the extent that POS provides the academic with both tangible and intangible rewards, they would reciprocate with commitment towards the institution, because of a felt obligation arising from the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960). The academics in the sample frequently referred to tangible aspects of support, such as resources, funds, and equipment, as being specifically important to them. Indeed, Joiner and Bakalis (2006) found that access to resources impacted on the AC of Australian academics. Highlighting the importance of this POS factor in terms of commitment to stay at an institution, a South African study found that the attrition of senior academics increased where the availability of research and teaching facilities, and resources, were lacking (Samuel & Chipunza, 2013). Thus, based on the literature, it is feasible to conclude that the provision of resources, being the form of organisational support mostly experienced by the academics in this study, is an “exchange reward” worthy of their commitment.

If one considers the work experience of **autonomy** to also be a form of POS, as suggested by Guerrero and Herrbach (2009), or as a predictor of POS (Edwards, 2009), then this might explain the relationship between POS and AC in this study. Autonomy was frequently highlighted by the interviewees as a reason for their commitment to the institution. It has been found that when the basic psychological need of autonomy is satisfied, there is a strong correlation with this need satisfaction and AC (Van Den Broeck, Vansteenkiste, Witte, Soenens, & Lens, 2010). Since academic autonomy is under threat in the changing work conditions the world over (Harris, 2005; Winter, 2009; Winter et al., 2000), still being able to enjoy autonomy at this institution would comprise a socio-emotional exchange reward that would plausibly induce the norm of reciprocity.

Value congruence was discussed previously in terms of being a possible predictor of POS in the context of this study. A South African study showed that academics who perceived that the values of their institution were compatible with their own personal values, were more likely to want to stay in the organisation (Mensele & Coetzee, 2014). Since intention to stay at the institution is one of the items included in the AC measurement scale, Mensele and Coetzee’s result, together with the qualitative findings in this study, might help explain the significant relationship found between POS and AC.

In conclusion, this study suggests that the academic reciprocates AC towards the institution in exchange for POS that mostly comprises the institution's provision of resources. Furthermore, POS might act as a mediator in the relationship between certain factors and AC. For example, based on the previous discussions about autonomy and value congruence, it is possible that these factors indirectly influence AC via POS. It therefore seems important for the development of commitment, that university management consider the types of support their academics require and ensure that they receive what they need to optimise their output.

6.6.2. Perceived Organisational Support on Organisational Identification

In support of Hypothesis 2b, and in accordance with both OST, SIT, and the group engagement model (GEM, Tyler & Blader, 2003), this study found POS to be positively and significantly related to OID ($\beta = 0.378$; $p \leq 0.05$). According to OST, when individuals' socio-emotional needs, such as approval, affiliation and esteem, are met and the institution cares for their well-being, the institution would be perceived to be more attractive to them — thereby growing their identification with the institution in response (Edwards & Peccei, 2010; Stinglhamber et al., 2016).

The qualitative findings revealed that access to resources represented how POS predominantly manifested in this context. Joiner and Bakalis (2006) suggested that access to resources “subtly communicates to the academic their value to the organization” (p. 449). Through the lens of GEM (Tyler & Blader, 2003), to the extent that academics feel valued by the institution, this “informal status” within the institution will lead to their identification with it, as it provides the individuals with a positive view of themselves (Fuller et al., 2006a; Tyler & Blader, 2003). Since access to resources is an indicator of POS in this context and is possibly one way of boosting the academic's informal status, it may therefore lead to OID, supporting the quantitative finding.

However, notwithstanding access to resources, the qualitative findings revealed that there were differing perceptions of whether respondents felt valued by the institution. Experiences of support and affirmation from top levels of the university's management were only reported by a few academics in the sample, who happened to be accomplished researchers. GEM holds that the perceived respect bestowed onto the individual within the organisation influences the extent of the employee's OID. Indeed, Fuller et al. (2006a) found that “respect” or what they

termed “status *within* the organisation” was directly related to OID. Hence, in the case of those who feel affirmed by the institution — through “respect” as a proxy for POS — this may also explain the relationship between POS and OID.

On the other hand, a few participants did not feel valued, or perceived there to be a degree of unfair treatment at the institution. According to GEM, when fair and supportive treatment is experienced, employees receive information that their employing organisation respects them and values their contribution, boosting their self-esteem (Edwards, 2009; Fuller et al., 2006a). Hence, if this does not occur, as expressed by those who did not feel valued and/or experienced unfairness, it is unlikely that OID will be promoted.

In summary, where academics felt valued and respected (e.g. through affirmation from management, or as in most cases, through being provided with access to resources), some of their socio-emotional needs for approval, affiliation and esteem, might have been met, and/or their “informal status” or “status within the organisation” might therefore have been elevated, thereby making the institution seem more attractive and promoting OID. These findings suggest that higher education managers should be cognisant of the perceptions they create in their treatment of academics, and endeavour to bolster perceptions of “informal status” among their faculty in order to encourage the development of OID.

6.7. Perceived External Reputation: Contextualisation and Influences

PER is the second of two independent variables proposed to influence AC and OID in this study. The mean overall score of 6.26 for PER was not high ($\bar{x} = 6.26$; $\sigma\bar{x} = 0.861$; 5 = neutral). The PER measure comprised only five items, of which three were ranked at approximately the same (mediocre) level as the overall mean. There were two extreme scores at opposite ends: the item referring to the “Quality of Management’s Leadership” achieved the lowest mean score ($\bar{x} = 5.01$; $\sigma\bar{x} = 2.297$); whereas the item referring to the “Quality of Research and Teaching” had the highest mean score ($\bar{x} = 7.87$; $\sigma\bar{x} = 1.426$).

Given their strong occupational commitment, both High AC and Low AC groups considered the “Quality of Research and Teaching” to be the most important dimension of PER. These findings suggest that academics in this study would not want to stay at the institution if it did not have a solid reputation in research and teaching. Institutional prestige is considered central to academics (Blackmore & Kandiko, 2011; O’Meara & Bloomgarden, 2010). O’Meara and

Bloomgarden (2010) testified to the “institutional pursuit of prestige”, with reference to national and international rankings “of institutions within the academic hierarchy”, that is commonplace among universities today (p. 40). However, once again, the pre-eminence of academics’ self-interest in their **personal academic reputation** comes to the fore. PER was only considered salient to the participants in terms of its **instrumental value** in helping them to achieve their own career goals. Alvesson and Spicer (2017), in discussing research outcomes, alluded to the academic’s sense of self and how it emphasises individualism, rather than promoting the collective. The findings suggest that PER offers the academic minimal perceived value in terms of their personal status. Another important qualitative finding was around the **role of career stage** in terms of PER’s salience. Both High AC and Low AC interviewees suggested that the salience of PER might vary at different stages of the academic’s career. “Role of Career Stage” might therefore matter less to well-established academics, and consequently have little or no bearing on their self-esteem or, in turn, on their OID.

At the other extreme, the low mean score for “Quality of Management's Leadership” is indicative of comments made in the open-ended survey responses (Phase One) and in the interviews (Phase Two). These pertain to the role executive management played during the FMF protests. Many respondents assigned blame for any potential reputational fallout from the protests to the way leadership dealt with the controversial situation. However, the relatively large standard deviation around the mean score for this item suggests that there are differences in opinions about the quality of management’s leadership, albeit that overall the perception is not particularly positive. Although the only perceived impact on PER seemed to be related to how management handled the protests, it is interesting to note that the High AC academics generally did not perceive any damaging impact on the institution’s external reputation, while the Low AC group had a more negative outlook. This makes sense if one considers that High AC participants are probably subject to in-group bias. When a group is threatened, a defensive mechanism in the form of in-group bias (Ashforth & Mael, 1989) may occur. As Van Dick, Wagner, Stellmacher, and Christ (2004) argued, when an individual has perceived him- or herself as a member of a social group, it will lead to him or her becoming vulnerable to an evaluation of the group’s characteristics (positive or negative) by others (in-group and out-group members). Consequently, this individual will be “ready to stand for the group and to behave in a way which is supportive of the group” (p. 174). Since the results of this study has found a correlation between AC and OID (as was theorised), it is understandable that high AC/high OID participants would view the situation differently. They

would be expected to minimise their own perceptions of reputational damage in order to preserve their self-concept, which was affected by their identification with the institution.

In summing up how PER manifests in the context of this study, overall, institutional reputation seemed to be a means to an end to the academics in this study. External reputation only seemed to matter insofar as it was perceived to help progress the academic's personal career, by facilitating access to conferences, top journals, and so forth. This is different to it being valuable for its own sake, as one would assume the concept of perceived external prestige to be. Prestige by its very nature implies a positive evaluation, whereas PER is a more "neutral" concept, and can be positive or negative. Despite the multidimensional operationalisation of the construct, academics in the study mostly alluded to academic reputation (i.e. related to research and teaching quality), aligned to their ranking of it, as the most important aspect of the university's reputation. This is also most likely what would have contributed to the pride in membership alluded to earlier. Either way, given the findings in this study, PER could perhaps be viewed as a "hygiene factor" (Herzberg & Snyderman, 1959). This is defined as an extrinsic work experience factor that does not cause satisfaction, but rather causes dissatisfaction when it is absent. To clarify: a high mean score for PER might not bring any satisfaction to academics, whereas a low overall mean score might cause dissatisfaction. This dissatisfaction with PER might lead to a reduction in job satisfaction or pride in membership as Helm's (2013) study showed, or worse still, lead to turnover intentions (Carmeli & Freund, 2009; Kamasak, 2011) to seek alternative employment at a more highly regarded institution. Hence, notwithstanding its mostly instrumental value to academics, the consequence of a poor external reputation could be detrimental to an institution. Accordingly, higher education management should strive to maintain their institutional reputation as far as possible, especially insofar as academic rankings are concerned, since these are likely to matter most to academics.

6.8. Influences of Perceived External Reputation

Research Question 3 asks: "How do academics' perceptions of outsiders' views of their university affect their identification with, and commitment to, their institution?" These two influences will now be discussed in turn, starting with the influence of PER on AC.

6.8.1. Perceived External Reputation on Affective Commitment

Hypothesis 3a, theorising that PER would be significantly and positively related to AC, was not supported ($\beta = 0.041$; $p > 0.05$). This contradicted Fuller et al.'s (2006a) study of university faculty that found perceived external prestige (PEP) was strongly related to AC. However, it is important to bear in mind at the outset of this discussion that the relationship between PER and AC in this study was measured in the presence of POS. The model might well have yielded different results if PER, OID and AC were the only constructs being measured and tested.

In the first instance, the operationalisation of PER, originally tested in the private sector and adapted in this study for academia, may help explain this unexpected result. Most of the previous relevant studies from which the hypotheses regarding PER were formulated, tended to use measurement scales for the construct “Prestige” or “Perceived External/Organisational Prestige” (PEP). Whereas PEP measures an insider’s “global” view of how outsiders perceive their institution’s prestige/status, PER (as operationalised in this study) specifically measured a variety of organisational attributes, providing a more holistic approach to the academic’s perceptions of outsiders’ views. Given that the overall mean score for PER was not very high, it suggests a “theoretical” gap exists between PER and PEP. A high overall mean score for PER would have indicated a positive judgement (comprising positive evaluations of each of the various aspects of the university that were measured), presumably narrowing the gap with PEP, which is inherently a favourable evaluation. The qualitative results indicated that almost all participants emphatically ranked the item “Quality of Research and Teaching” as being the most important of the five dimensions of reputation that were measured⁵¹. The sentiment towards the other four dimensions was generally that they were not worth being concerned with, unless something went significantly wrong with any of them. An example of this would be if university leadership consistently received negative publicity for making poor decisions. However, the interviewees were acutely aware of the impact of research and teaching quality on global university rankings, and the consequences of a good reputation in this area in terms of access to conferences, international recognition, attracting high calibre students and staff, and so forth. Therefore, had the item, “Quality of Research and Teaching”, been more heavily weighted, the relationship between PER and AC might have been stronger and/or significant.

⁵¹ This item’s mean score was also significantly higher than the rest.

Importantly too, the relationship between PER and AC was tested concurrently with POS. Since a high association was observed between POS and PER ($\beta = 0.522, p \leq 0.05$), it is possible that some of the variance in AC that may otherwise have been attributed to PER, has been accounted for by POS.

In conclusion, PER, as operationalised in this study, does not appear to be a construct that warrants being considered an “indirect exchange reward”, i.e. one that would induce a felt obligation or reciprocation, and in turn, AC. PER was, however, not found to be significantly related to OID in this study either. This is discussed next.

6.8.2. Perceived External Reputation on Organisational Identification

PER was neither found to be significantly, nor positively related to OID ($\beta = -0.010; p > 0.05$), therefore not supporting Hypothesis 2b. While this contradicted several studies that found PER or PEP to be strongly related to OID (Gonzalez & Chakraborty, 2012; Hameed et al., 2013), it confirms Marique, et al.’s (2013) finding that “organisational prestige” was not significantly related to OID, when tested concurrently with POS. Once again, it is important to consider that the relationship between PER and OID was measured in the presence of POS.

SIT (Ashforth & Mael, 1989) formed the basis for hypothesising the relationship between PER and OID, founded on the principle that PER (representing “prestige” associated with the institution) would enhance the academic’s self-esteem, thereby encouraging identification. Moreover, according to GEM (Tyler & Blader, 2003), PER would be one of two status evaluations, in this case an “external status”, that would shape academics’ self-perceptions and their resultant OID. Thus, the previous discussion regarding the operationalisation of PER may similarly apply here. PER does not seem to provide the same “external status” that “prestige” (PEP) offers. A low overall PER mean score suggests that PER is not likely to have the same inherently favourable meaning as PEP. Consequently, PER’s ability to fulfil certain socio-emotional needs, which prestige might have fulfilled, would be lacking and hence, the associated capacity to enhance the academic’s self-esteem through OID would also be absent.

Another explanation could be related to the qualitative finding regarding the salience of PER in terms of the academic’s career stage. Liu, Lam, and Loi (2014) suggested that position (or professional status) within the organisation might influence a professional employee’s need for self-enhancement and thus their sensitivity to organisational prestige. This idea

corroborates somewhat with the qualitative finding that suggested the salience of PER varied with the academic's personal status. For example, established professors are likely to be less concerned about organisational prestige — since their own reputation matters more — whereas junior lecturers might seek to enhance their self-esteem through association with a prestigious institution. In this example, junior lecturers would be more likely to develop identification with the institution as a result. Almost half the academics in this sample were at professorial level, i.e. professors and associate professors. It is therefore possible that this result might have been different had a larger percentage of lower ranked academics been studied. In this scenario, there might have been more need for self-esteem enhancement within the group, and consequently more sensitivity to the prestige of the institution. Accordingly, it is possible, as Liu, Lam and Loi suggested, that the academic's "career stage" would moderate the relationship between PER (or prestige) and OID.

Finally, the relationship between PER and OID was tested concurrently with POS. Since a high association was observed between POS and PER ($\beta = 0.522, p \leq 0.05$), it is possible that some of the variance in OID that might otherwise have been attributed to PER, has been accounted for by POS. This concludes the discussion on the direct influences of POS and PER, on AC and OID, respectively. The next section discusses the indirect influences of the two independent variables on AC, where OID was posited to be a partial mediator in the relevant hypotheses.

6.9. Mediation Effects of Organisational Identification

This section supplements the answers to Research Questions 2 and 3, namely: "How do academics' perceptions of institutional support affect their identification with, and commitment to, their institution?" and "How do academics' perceptions of outsiders' views of their university affect their identification with, and commitment to, their institution?" A further consideration was whether the extent to which academics identify with their institution mediates the influences of their perceptions of institutional support and of outsiders' views of their university, on their organisational commitment. The partial mediation effects of OID in the relationship between POS and AC will be discussed first.

6.9.1. Indirect Effect of Perceived Organisational Support

As predicted by Hypothesis 2c, the indirect effect of POS on AC was significant ($\beta = 0.142$, $p \leq 0.05$). This study, by establishing that OID partially mediates the relationship between POS and AC, confirms prior research that was conducted in the private sector (Caesens et al., 2014; Marique et al., 2013). The direct relationships between POS and OID, and OID and AC, respectively, have been discussed earlier. These two discussions form the basis for understanding the indirect relationship between POS and AC, only partially mediated by OID, since the two direct relationships were both significant.

The significant indirect relationship suggests that OID played a role in the relationship between the POS and AC of academics, since it showed that POS influenced academics' identification with the institution, which in turn influenced their AC. This is supported by OST (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002) which posits that socio-emotional factors (in this case pride in membership, for example) strengthens identification, resulting in increased commitment. Since academics might have different exchange ideologies — in turn affecting their levels of felt obligation — a self-esteem-based mechanism involving OID could therefore provide an alternative, or complementary explanation to SET for the relationship between academics' POS and AC (Lee & Peccei, 2007; Marique et al., 2013).

6.9.2. Indirect Effect of Perceived External Reputation

PER was not found to be significantly related to OID ($\beta = -0.004$; $p > 0.05$). Hypothesis 3c, which theorised that OID partially mediates the relationship between academics' PER and AC, was therefore not supported by the findings in this study.

The direct relationships between PER and OID, and OID and AC, respectively, have been discussed earlier. These two discussions form the basis for understanding the insignificant indirect relationship between academics' PER and AC. PER was neither found to significantly impact on OID, nor on AC. Therefore, academics' OID could not be found to partially mediate the relationship between PER and AC. This concludes the discussion on OID as a partial mediator in the relationships between academics' POS and AC, and PER and AC, respectively. The next section concludes the discussion chapter.

6.10. Summary and Conclusion

The overall findings suggest that POS was of greater importance to academics in terms of their OID and AC, than PER. Marique et al. (2013) argued that POS “informs employees about both their own status within their organization and the status of their organization” (p. 75) relative to others. On the other hand, perceived external prestige only measures perceptions of external status. Moreover, these authors posited that employees tend to be more strongly influenced by their own appraisal of their organisation’s status, rather than externally-based evaluations (Marique et al., 2013). This rationale may help explain the results of the structural model.

Indeed, the qualitative findings in this study suggested that academics’ perceptions of the support they received from the university seemed to be of greater significance to them, than their concern with their institution’s external reputation. In accordance with SET and OST, POS represents a socio-emotional reward, influencing AC through the norm of reciprocity. However, POS is also assumed to represent informal status, or internal respect, within the institution. According to SIT, in conjunction with GEM, academics’ perceptions of the informal status that they have within the institution, have the potential to enhance their self-esteem, and would therefore promote OID. The findings of this study therefore concur with recent literature that recognises the value of both SET and SIT in explaining the psychological relationships between employees and their organisations.

This chapter discussed the quantitative and qualitative findings from Phases One and Two. Each construct was contextualised and influencing factors were explored. Because of these considerations, the research questions could be addressed more holistically. This concludes the Discussion Chapter. The next, and final, chapter provides the conclusion to the thesis.

CHAPTER SEVEN

CONCLUSION

This study investigated the concurrent effects of perceived organisational support (POS) and perceived external reputation (PER) on both the organisational identification (OID) and affective commitment (AC) of academics at a South African university. The purpose of this chapter is to conclude the thesis. The chapter answers the research questions that were posed at the outset. A conceptual model is proposed based on the research findings. The chapter then discusses the value of the study and the practical implications thereof. Finally, limitations are noted and suggestions are provided for future research.

7.1. Research Questions and Answers

The overarching research question that the study addressed was as follows:

How do academics' perceptions of the institutional support they receive, and their perceptions of how outsiders' view their university, simultaneously influence their identification with, and commitment to, their university?

This question was broken down into three sub-questions that will each be presented and answered in turn. These answers were informed by both the results of the hypotheses testing, as well as by answers to the qualitative research questions.

1. How does academics' identification with their institutions affect their organisational commitment?

The study found that academics' identification with their institutions positively influenced their commitment in the presence of perceptions of institutional support received and their perceptions of outsiders' views of the university. Academics' identification with their institution seemed to be positively influenced by factors such as pride in membership, the existence of positive meta-stereotypes, and institutional prestige. Participants experiencing these factors are likely to consider their organisational membership to be of value to them,

making the institution seem more attractive, hence developing their organisational commitment.

2. How do academics' perceptions of institutional support affect their identification with, and commitment to, their institution?

Academics' perceptions of support from their institution were found to positively influence their identification with, and commitment to, their university. Academics' perceptions of institutional support at this institution seemed to have occurred mainly through academics having access to resources to do their work, and through feeling that they or their contributions were valued. Perceptions of autonomy, as well as congruence between their own values and those of the institution, were other influences that possibly affected their perceptions of institutional support. Viewed as socio-emotional rewards, these factors may have contributed to developing an emotional attachment to the institution via both organisational commitment and organisational identification. Furthermore, it appeared that these perceptions of organisational support mattered more to academics in terms of influencing both psychological relationships, compared with their perceptions of external reputation, measured at the same time.

3. How do academics' perceptions of outsiders' views of their university affect their identification with, and commitment to, their institution?

Academics' perceptions of outsiders' views of their institution were found to have no significant influence on their commitment, or on the extent to which they identified with their institution when considered in the presence of their perceptions of support received from it. Perceptions of external reputation only seemed to matter in a cognitive and instrumental, rather than an emotive way. Expanding on this, where external reputation was perceived to be helpful in terms of advancing the academic's own career, it was deemed salient; otherwise it appeared to be of little consequence relative to perceptions of organisational support.

Finally, a comprehensive understanding of the influences of the perceptions of organisational support and perceptions of outsiders' views on academics' commitment to their institution required consideration of institutional identification's role as a possible mediator. In other words, does the extent to which academics identify with their institution mediate the

influences of their perceptions of institutional support and of outsiders' views of their university, on their organisational commitment?

The answer to the mediation question was reliant on the answers of Questions 1–3, given that mediation is conditional upon specific related relationships being significant. For example, identification with their institution could only be found to mediate the relationship between perceptions of organisational support and commitment to the institution where academics' perceptions of organisational support influenced their organisational identification, and where the latter was found to influence their commitment. Indeed, academics' identification with their institution was found to partially mediate the relationship between perceptions of organisational support and commitment to the institution. However, there was no evidence to suggest that academics' organisational identification mediated the relationship between perceptions of external reputation and organisational commitment. While organisational identification was found to influence commitment to the institution, academics' perceptions of external reputation and their organisational identification were not found to be related.

7.2. The Mixed Methods Research Question

In addition to the quantitative and qualitative questions, a mixed methods research design demands that the researcher asks and answers a specific mixed methods research question (MMRQ). The MMRQ, associated with the explanatory sequential mixed methods research was:

“To what extent did the follow-up qualitative study assist with understanding and explaining a) the insignificant impact of perceived external reputation on organisational identification and affective commitment, and b) the relative importance of perceived organisational support in influencing organisational identification and affective commitment?”

Firstly, the qualitative data provided an understanding into how each of the constructs manifested in the context of this study, allowing for a more holistic interpretation of the quantitative findings. Answering the MMRQ required insight into what constituted POS, representing an informal status or internal respect, for the academics who were studied. Similarly, it was necessary to understand their perceptions of external reputation, representing external status. Having these insights enabled a more informed comparison of how these specific status-related variables influenced OID and AC. For example, learning from the

qualitative component of the study that PER seemed mostly to be valued for instrumental reasons by the participants, helped shed light on its insignificant influences. Further, the qualitative results suggested that PER seemed to be less salient in the work lives of the participants for a few reasons. While the reputation dimension pertaining to “quality of research and teaching” was of instrumental importance in terms of facilitating access to conferences, top tier journals and so forth, the importance of this aspect seemed to fluctuate in accordance with the academic’s personal reputation. In other words, PER would have been more salient to new academics than to those with established academic track records who would have been less dependent on the institution’s reputation for career advancement. This can be linked to the pre-eminence of the academic identity, which was emphasised during the qualitative phase, and might also explain why PER failed to impact OID. To elaborate, academics in the study seemed more likely to identify with their individual disciplines, rather than with the institution, potentially undermining the relationship between PER and OID. Furthermore, the qualitative data revealed that four of the five reputation dimensions used to measure PER were not seen to be of much consequence to the academics. The participants suggested that, unless the institution was believed to be doing something wrong in the related areas, such as university leadership consistently taking questionable actions, there was no need to be concerned about those reputation dimensions. This also provided insight into the reduced power of PER to have any impact on academics’ OID and AC.

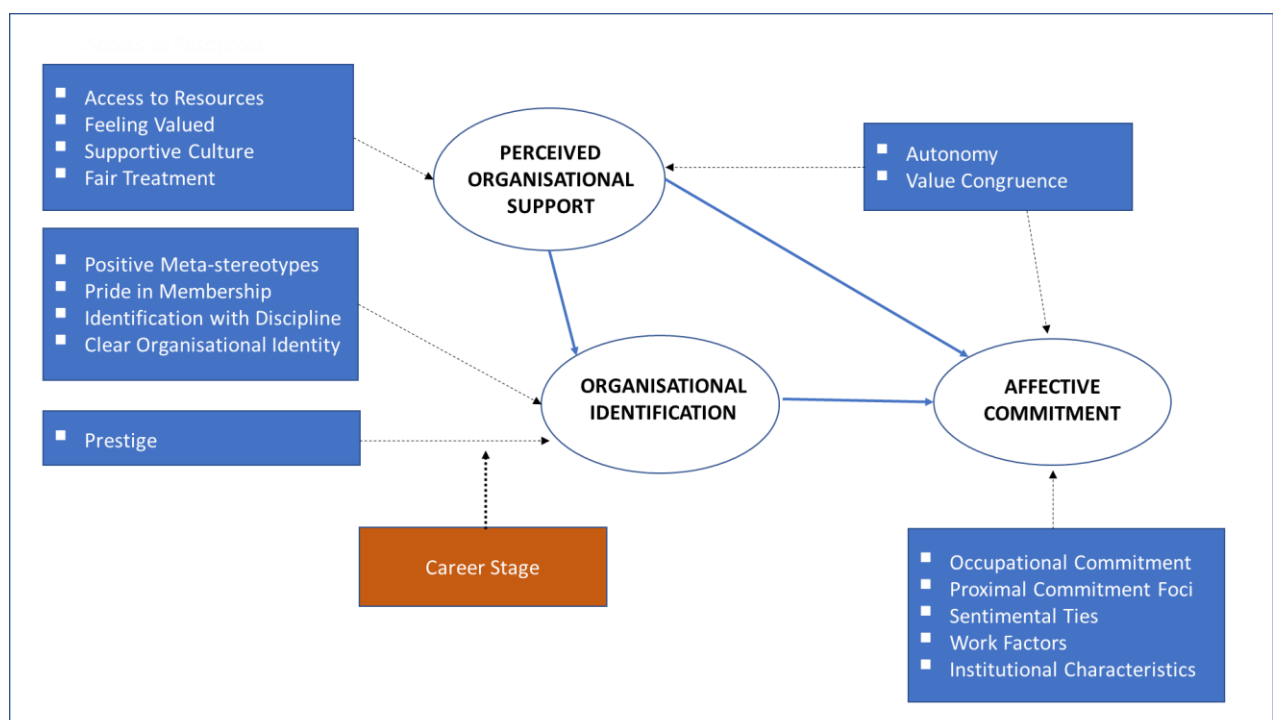
Secondly, the qualitative findings highlighted positive and negative factors that were likely to influence each of the constructs, providing a better understanding of the underlying mechanisms explaining the relationships in the structural model. An example of this is offered by referring to POS: The interview data highlighted that where academics were provided with appropriate access to resources, as well as the autonomy and freedom to do their work in the way they desired, academics in this study seemed to have experienced POS. It is likely that these factors might lead to fulfilment of basic psychological needs, and in so doing, provide the intrinsic rewards academics seek. On the other hand, the qualitative findings suggested a general lack of caring by institutional agents, and perceptions of unfair treatment and of not feeling valued, might have reduced the participants’ POS. Since it is possible that POS might have been experienced differently and/or have involved different influencing factors — in the private sector, or by administration or support staff within the higher education institution — so the qualitative component added value in terms of providing a better understanding of the context of the study.

In summing up therefore, the findings from the qualitative data suggested that PER was likely to vary in salience according to career stage, and that its value might have been purely instrumental. This knowledge helped explain the non-significant relationships found between PER and OID, and likewise between PER and AC. Overall, the qualitative findings suggested that POS offered the study's academics aspects relatively more important to them than PER in terms of advancing their personal careers. The interviews revealed the dominance of the academic identity, the individualistic drive of academics, and the importance of the academic's individual academic reputation, relative to that of the university's. Therefore, a more complete interpretation of the context and the participants was facilitated by the qualitative component of the study. Finally, a more insightful rework of the conceptual model was made possible.

7.3. Proposed Conceptual Model

Figure 18 presents a proposed conceptual model that consolidates the outcomes of the study and shows the influences of POS and OID on AC, together with factors that are proposed to influence each of the three constructs. This model —based on both the study's quantitative and qualitative findings — represents a modification of the earlier conceptual model that was developed and tested during the study. The rationale follows below the diagram.

Figure 18 Proposed Conceptual Model



Source: Derived from this study.

7.3.1. The “Core” of the Conceptual Model

As Figure 18 shows, PER has been excluded from the proposed conceptual model. In this study, PER — tested concurrently with POS — had no significant influence on either AC or OID, directly nor indirectly. It is worth noting that Marique et al. (2013) found that organisational prestige moderates the relationship between POS and OID. It is therefore possible that PER might have played this role instead of directly or indirectly influencing OID and AC. (This was deemed outside the intended scope of the study and thus was not tested.)

While PER had no influence on AC or OID, academics’ POS was found to significantly influence both AC and OID directly, as well as AC indirectly, via OID. Therefore, in modifying the conceptual model to reflect the findings, PER and the insignificant pathways between it and the other constructs were thus eliminated. Based purely on the significant relationships found in the quantitative results, the core of the modified model comprises academics’ POS, OID and AC, where POS directly impacts on both OID and AC, and OID acts as a partial mediator between POS and AC.

Importantly, this model suggests that, despite academics’ individualistic tendencies, the dominance of their identification with their disciplines, their strong occupational commitment, and their perceptions of institutional support do play an important role in developing positive relationships with the institution in the forms of OID and AC. However, this may have less to do with status (informal status/internal respect) than with practicalities: When unpacking the factors that influence the constructs in the model, it emerges that they generally contribute, in one way or another, to optimising the academics’ own career. This suggests that academics might need to be given different forms of support compared with other types of employees who may be more influenced by being made to feel nurtured and cared for. From a social exchange theory perspective, this implies that the socio-emotional rewards that are exchanged in return for academics’ AC may vary from those exchanged for the AC of other types of employees. Knowledge workers, a category of employees that includes academics, generally prefer HRM practices that endorse independence, personal accomplishment, and individualism (Kinnear & Sutherland, 2000). Similarly, Horwitz, Heng, and Quazi (2003) found that the most highly effective strategies for motivating and retaining these types of employees offered them freedom to plan their own work, a challenging work environment, opportunities for career-advancement, and top management support. Therefore, managers of academics would benefit more from ensuring that academics are supported in ways that will allow them to optimise their academic work. Having said that, it is likely that younger

academics might need more nurturing, possibly in terms of guidance and mentoring to better navigate the challenges of the demanding academic profession.

While PER was eliminated from the proposed conceptual model, “prestige” has been introduced instead as a driver of OID. Prestige, associated with a more general view of the university’s reputation, seemed to have played a role in developing OID, and hence it is proposed as an antecedent of OID in the conceptual model, together with a moderator. The impact of prestige on OID, conditional upon “career stage”, will be discussed shortly. The implication of this, however, is that the proposed conceptual model has not eliminated the notion of external reputation entirely due to its potential role as an antecedent of OID. In other words, there might be instances where institutional prestige will lead to the development of academics’ OID. Providing a social identity theory explanation, early stage academics may derive self-esteem enhancement benefits associated with their institution’s prestige, in turn bolstering their OID.

It is also conceivable that POS might play a mediation role in the relationships between all the factors proposed to influence it, and AC. Similarly, OID might mediate the relationships between its proposed antecedents and AC.

Finally, it is acknowledged that the proposed conceptual model was developed based on results from a study conducted in the context of an emerging economy. Implications of this are the additional challenges that academics in countries such as South Africa face. In South Africa, these issues include curriculum decolonisation, underprepared students, and an unacceptably low staff-to-student ratio. It is possible, therefore, that these results might be more meaningful to higher education institutions in other emerging economies. Nevertheless, the university at which the study was conducted tends to enjoy world-class recognition and aspires to international standards of teaching and research outputs. Therefore, notwithstanding the special challenges of higher education institutions in South Africa, and their implications, it is feasible that the proposed conceptual model could be applied to academics anywhere in the world.

7.3.2. Proposed Influencing Factors

The qualitative findings provided insights that led to the inclusion of various factors into the model, which appeared to influence the three respective constructs.

7.3.2.1. Influences on Commitment and Perceived Organisational Support

Based on the qualitative results, both autonomy and value congruence seemed to positively influence the development of AC in this sample. However, as was argued previously, both factors might influence POS too. Therefore, as the model shows, autonomy and value congruence might each directly influence POS, and AC, respectively. In addition, POS might partially mediate the relationship between each of these two factors and AC. This reinforces the need for higher education managers to ensure academics have as much autonomy in their work lives as possible, and that respect needs to be shown for their values.

7.3.2.2. Other Factors that may affect Affective Commitment

In addition to autonomy and value congruence, AC in this sample seemed to be conferred to the institution via commitment to the academic profession (i.e. occupational commitment), as well as through commitment to more proximal foci such as the academics' immediate teams, their HODs, their departments or their faculties. It is interesting that despite academics' individualistic tendencies, academics seemed to have formed strong attachments to people they worked with. However, this apparent dichotomy fits well with the idea of creating a 'participative organisational culture' (Horwitz, Heng, Quazi, Nonkwelo, Roditi, & Eck, 2006). This facilitates relative autonomy in the work context, yet encourages a more 'collective' work culture, including both teamwork and individual opportunities, which these authors recommend in order to retain knowledge workers.

On the other hand, there were issues that appeared to constrain the development of AC, namely **work factors** such as heavy workloads and increased administration, as well as certain institutional characteristics and its bureaucratic nature. University management should therefore strive to ensure that unnecessary administrative burdens placed on academics are minimised.

7.3.2.3. Other Factors that may affect Perceived Organisational Support

As the model depicts, the qualitative results suggested that the following factors, in addition to autonomy and value congruence, might also positively influence POS in this context: academics being provided with access to resources to do their jobs, and being made to feel valued. Discussed previously, academics should be supported in any manner that helps them

to achieve their academic goals. It is suggested that providing this type of support would best serve academics. Management of academics should note that despite their independence, academics do seem to appreciate being recognised and made to feel valued. Thus, acknowledging academics' achievements might go some way toward the development of POS. Furthermore, creating the perception that all employees are being treated equally, as well as developing a more supportive environment — as opposed to the “sink or swim” culture — might also increase academics' POS.

7.3.2.4. Influences on Organisational Identification

Forming the impression of positive meta-stereotypes of academics at the institution, through idealistic associations, is likely to assist in the development of OID in academics, and to enhance their self-view. Furthermore, pride in membership is proposed as a predictor of OID. Pride implies a sense of “ownership”, indicative of an overlapping identity of self with the institution. Academics seem to identify more with their disciplines than with their institution. However, university managers might be wise to strengthen their disciplinary units, since the benefits of academics identifying with those “nested entities” might be conferred to the institution (Edwards & Peccei, 2010). It is further proposed that having a clear organisational identity might encourage OID in academics. Institutional managers might attempt to establish a more coherent view of what their institutions represent, including articulating what their differentiators and distinctive competencies are. Building pride around this vision is likely to promote academics' OID.

7.3.3. Proposed Moderation Effect of Career Stage

Finally, although PER was removed from the modified conceptual model, the qualitative results suggested that to a certain extent, the academic reputation of the institution may foster OID in some academics due to self-esteem enhancement. However, the augmented model assumes that academic reputation can be measured by the construct, “prestige”, rather than PER. Assuming prestige represents external status, one could infer that this construct enhances the academic's self-esteem, and therefore promotes OID in accordance with SIT and GEM.

Given the individualistic nature of the academic profession, however, and the dominance of the individual (academic) identity, the qualitative component of the study suggested that the salience of prestige is likely to vary, depending on the career stage of the academic. Early-

stage academics who have not yet developed their own academic reputation will rely more heavily on the reputation of the institution, for a better view of self. The institution's reputation would therefore provide a source of self-esteem enhancement, and subsequently, the academic will develop greater identification with the institution, strengthening the relationship between prestige and OID. On the other hand, established academics, with their own academic reputation, will not need the institution's reputation to boost their self-esteem. In this case, there would not be a strong theoretical justification for a relationship between prestige and OID. Thus, the model proposes "career stage" as a moderator of the relationship between prestige and OID.

This concludes the explanation of the modified and augmented conceptual model. The next section discusses the contribution that this study made to knowledge.

7.4. Contribution to Knowledge

The study aimed to contribute to research, both theoretically and empirically, as well as to practice. These contributions are outlined below.

7.4.1. Contribution to Theory

This study contributes to the literature on the constructs, OID, AC, POS and PER, in terms of their interrelationships. Firstly, a gap in the current literature seemed to exist whereby the effects of POS and PER, on both OID and AC, in turn, and with OID presumed to play a partial mediation role between the two antecedents and AC, had not previously been tested concurrently in the way it was tested in this study. Researchers had previously tested the concurrent effects of informal status/respect and external status/prestige on OID (Fuller et al., 2006a). Others had tested the concurrent effects of POS and PER on AC (Guerrero & Herrbach, 2009). OID had been found to mediate the relationship between POS and AC (Caesens et al., 2014), and in a separate study was found to mediate the relationship between PER and AC (Podnar & Golob, 2015). Only one study had simultaneously tested the same four constructs. In that study, organisational prestige was tested as a moderator of the relationship between POS and OID, which in turn mediated the relationship between POS and AC (Marique et al., 2013). However, there was no evidence of a previous study that had tested the partially mediating role of OID in the relationships between POS and AC, as well as between PER and AC, simultaneously. In doing the latter, this study enabled a comparison of the effects of POS on OID, and in turn AC, with PER on OID, and in turn, AC in the context

of higher education. The results indicated that POS, representing status derived informally from within the institution, had more impact on academics' OID, and AC, than PER, a status derived from external sources.

This study also extends recent work that has investigated how the mechanisms of SET and SIT can be used to complement, or provide alternatives to, one another (Caesens et al., 2014; Guerrero & Herrbach, 2009; Marique et al., 2013; Stinglhamber et al., 2015), when explaining the development of OID and/or AC in the higher education context. Supporting some of the related findings to date, the results suggested that: a) SET and OST might well be applicable to the direct relationship between POS and AC; b) GEM might explain the relationship between POS (as an informal status) and OID; and c) that SIT could possibly explain the indirect relationship between POS and AC, via OID. On the other hand, the results suggested that SET might not apply to the relationship between academics' PER and AC, implying that PER may not be perceived as an indirect reward worthy of reciprocation in this context. Similarly, PER had no impact on OID in this study, suggesting that it might not serve to enhance academics' self-esteem. In this case, PER is not likely to promote identification with the institution, as would have been explained by SIT and GEM.

Furthermore, the study's measures for the PER construct, based on "corporate reputation", were previously only studied in the private sector (Helm, 2013). PER was adapted for academia in this study, and used as a proxy for external status, instead of perceived external prestige (PEP) that has typically been used for this purpose. PER — as operationalised in this study — provides a more nuanced view of academics' perceptions of external status than PEP does. It further contributes to the limited literature involving PER as a multidimensional reputation-related construct, in that it is being tested in the higher education sector, as well as with POS, OID, and AC simultaneously.

Additionally, the study contributes to higher education literature regarding academics' OID and AC. It is the first model of its kind that has been tested in the higher education sector. The study extends the work of Fuller et al. (2006b) by including OID as a mediator. Finally, it provides a contribution in relation to the emerging economy context, since similar models investigated in previous studies have mostly been tested in developed countries.

7.4.2. Methodological Contribution

Aside from the theoretical contribution, the study also makes an empirical or methodological contribution in utilising a mixed methods approach. Usually, research on the relationships between these constructs and their correlates, antecedents and outcomes, are studied quantitatively. Most of the literature upon which the hypotheses in this study were developed, comprised purely quantitative studies. The use of a mixed methods approach to assist with understanding and interpreting the quantitative results provided a more comprehensive account of the results, than a purely quantitative study would have done.

Additionally, while being based on the explanatory sequential mixed methods research design, this study incorporated an additional element of “mixing”, in the form of an embedded qualitative component in the otherwise quantitative survey. This component enriched the Phase One results and was effective in helping to inform the interview protocol development.

Moreover, the study made use of various methods of data analysis: three forms of quantitative data analysis, namely producing/analysing the descriptive statistics, conducting confirmatory factor analysis, and performing structural equation analysis; and two forms of qualitative data analysis comprising content analysis and template analysis. Interestingly, content analysis, albeit used to analyse qualitative data, is somewhat quantitative in nature, since text is categorised and the frequency of themes counted. Furthermore, even though template analysis is used to analyse qualitative data, this study merged aspects of the quantitative results into the analysis, in that it used the interviewees’ AC scores in the templates. Themes were categorised and associated with either “High AC” respondents, or “Low AC” respondents, or both, enriching the template analysis results and extending the insights that could be gleaned from them.

7.4.3. Practical Implications and Recommendations

University managers of academics at higher education institutions, as well as scholars of academic practice, can gain insight into the relative importance of POS versus PER in terms of academics’ psychological relationships with their institutions, namely, OID and AC. Knowledge that contributes towards improving academics’ OID and AC can be used to indirectly increase the motivation and retention of academics. In turn, these outcomes would ultimately benefit students, since a bigger pool of motivated academics is likely to lead to an improved student experience and ultimately increased throughput rates.

The qualitative data has provided a richer understanding of how academics experience POS and PER, thus enabling university managers to be more aware of what matters most to their academic staff, and to respond accordingly. This may be particularly useful for academics themselves who are newly employed in management positions, since the management function requires different perspectives, skills and knowledge. Considering the results and the interpretation thereof, there are some recommendations that can be proposed. These are listed below.

POS was found to have a significant influence on both OID and AC, strongly suggesting that it should be encouraged. There are a few ways that POS might be increased:

- a) Address the “Sink or Swim” Culture through targeted programmes, as well as encouraging informal support. This is especially important to retain young academics, both at the institution, and in academia. Examples of this include providing coaching and mentoring, possibly through formal programmes, and offering more guidance in terms of applications for research funding and ad hominem promotions. Alternatively, support can be given informally. Adcroft and Taylor (2013) studied support for new academics and emphasised the need for “strong social processes”, arguing that relationships forged between new academics and colleagues and/or senior academics could help the young academic cope better with tensions related to gaps in expectations, and conflicting demands. Retaining young academics is undoubtedly critical to the future of the academic profession.
- b) Maintain capacity in operating budgets to continue being able to provide adequate, if not superior, resources that enable academics to optimise their output, for example, increased access to international databases, state-of-the-art, fully equipped lecture theatres, and so forth. Institutions perceived to be providing this type of support are likely to encourage their academics’ AC and OID, ultimately to improve academic retention rates.

Since OID was found to increase AC in this study, the institution should make every effort to increase the salience of academics’ institutional membership. There are at least two ways this can be done:

- c) University management may consider doing more internal “brand-building”. For example, at Seamount University, the lack of a clear organisational identity indicated that there was a need to develop a unifying employee brand-building campaign and

create coherence around what the institution stood for. Generally, all universities should strive to have a clear unifying and coherent identity that academics can take pride in. Based on this study's findings, this would help to develop their OID as well as AC, and may therefore assist with the retention of academics.

- d) In a similar vein, perceptions of organisational prestige should be encouraged through communicating and celebrating successes with regards to research output, rankings, and so forth. This might also have the effect of increasing pride in membership, a factor proposed to influence OID, and in turn AC.

All the above recommendations should have the effect of increasing AC through its relationship with either POS and/or OID. In addition, management would do well to adhere to the following recommendations:

- e) The autonomy that academics currently enjoy should be protected as far as possible. Managerialist tendencies such as demanding that academics do more administrative tasks, increased quality audits, etc. will reduce this autonomy, and therefore reduce both perceptions of organisational support, as well as AC. These demands need to be monitored and kept to a minimum. This could ultimately also prevent the attrition of academics since the literature has suggested that worldwide, academics are considering leaving the profession because of the unwelcome changes that managerialism introduced.
- f) Given the centrality of the academic identity, and the academic's strong occupational/professional commitment, management should ensure that the institution enables its academics to flourish and achieve their professional aspirations. Examples of ways that the institution can assist with academics' career goals include providing access to writing retreats to allow academics the time and space to progress their prospective journal articles, providing sufficient funding for conference travel, and ensuring mentoring for early stage academics that require guidance. To the extent that related successes are seen by academics to be attributable to the support of the institution, both OID and AC should grow. Again, this would be valuable in terms of academic retention.

7.5. Limitations and Future Research

At the outset of the study, a note was provided regarding the timing of the study. The research was conducted in the aftermath of violent student protests that had disrupted operations at

South African universities. However, although the unique timing might have been considered when attempting to generalise the findings, it was reassuring that throughout the fifteen interviews, relatively little mention was made of the protests. It is therefore assumed that the timing did not impact on the findings to any significant degree.

Limitations related to the quantitative study (Phase One) were discussed in the Methodology Chapter. These included the fact that cross-sectional research does not allow for causality to be established between the constructs; instead results are strictly correlational only. Longitudinal research would need to be conducted to ascertain causality. Another possible limitation is the use of self-reported survey data, which carry the risk of common method bias (CMB) in the results. However, self-reported measures seem to be the most appropriate way to investigate employees' perceptions, feelings and attitudes (Marique et al., 2013). Moreover, recent findings of a comprehensive assessment of evidence on common method variance (CMV) and CMB deemed CMB a low threat to validity (Bozionelos, 2018). According to Bozionelos (2018, p. 21), "overall, contemporary evidence coming from two different directions, research on the effects of CMV on relationship estimates and on the effectiveness of post hoc methods in detecting CMB, suggests that the danger to validity CMV imposes in same-respondent research is extremely low that bounds to non-existent." Furthermore, in this study, the use of qualitative research to follow up on the quantitative results, being a different and complementary data collection method, may have mitigated CMB to a degree.

The limited sample size did not allow for controlling the demographic variables using SEM. It would be worthwhile to repeat the survey using a larger sample, and to control for the demographic variables, or possibly test whether there are significant differences in the responses of the different demographic groups. Shin and Jung (2014) found differences in academics' responses to managerial reforms by seniority, gender, and employment status, for example. It would also be advisable to repeat the survey in different types of higher education institutions, perhaps in those that are less research-intensive, or in previously disadvantaged institutions, in order to increase the generalisability within higher education institutions in South Africa.

The construct PER was adapted from a corporate reputation construct that was tested in the private sector. The findings suggest that it may need to be further refined for use in academia. The discrepancy between the individual item scores in the PER measures may have had an impact on the structural model results. The salience of research and teaching is a crucial

aspect of the academic identity that underpinned all the results in one way or another. Had the item, “Quality of Research and Teaching”, been more heavily weighted, rather than equally with the other items, the overall score for the construct could have looked very different, and consequently may have interacted differently with the other variables in the model. With a heavier weighting on “quality of research and teaching”, the construct may have behaved more like the construct of “perceived external prestige”, given the extremely high mean score for this specific dimension. Therefore, it might be a good idea for future research to develop a more nuanced and refined construct to measure the PER of academics. A more appropriate measure of PER might contribute to knowledge in the area of reputation management in the context of academia, an area that has recently attracted some attention (Suomi et al., 2014).

The qualitative findings indicated that strong identification exists with more proximal foci than that of the institution, such as the academic’s discipline or faculty. Future research could therefore investigate the relationship of academics’ identification with those other foci, in terms of the relationships between those nested identifications and OID, as well as AC. Research along these lines has been done before (Edwards & Peccei, 2010; Podnar & Golob, 2015; Ullrich et al., 2007; Van Knippenberg & Van Schie, 2000), but has yielded inconsistent results, and the studies were not conducted in the context of academia. Similarly, the simultaneous relationships between AC and commitment targets other than that of the institution, and with AC to the institution, could provide interesting results in the context of academia. It would be valuable to gain more insight into the implications of academics’ OID and AC with proximal entities, in terms of how these affect academics’ psychological relationships with the larger institution. Knowledge of this might help higher education institutions’ management to leverage the relationships that academics form with nested entities for the benefit of the institution.

Furthermore, given the South African context it would be very interesting to examine the impact of perceived social justice and social comparisons on academics’ identification with, and commitment to their occupation, as well as to their institution.

The qualitative findings suggested that the career stage of an academic might moderate the relationship between institutional prestige and OID. If the relationship between prestige and OID is found to be stronger among younger academics, then this could be harnessed to grow OID among young academics. It would be useful for university managers to know this, since they could then develop strategies to bolster perceptions of prestige that are targeted at

younger academics. This might help with retention of these early-stage academics, as previously mentioned, an issue that is of vital importance to ensure the continuity of the higher education sector.

Finally, more mixed methods research could be conducted on the contemporary academic. The academic profession is losing its attraction, and consequently it may lose many of its academics. While there are some mixed methods studies in this area, it would be valuable to investigate issues such as what would entice more PhD graduates to embark on academic careers, and how to retain and motivate young academics, through the combination of quantitative and qualitative methods so as to generate more comprehensive findings.

7.6. Concluding Remarks

Developing a psychological bond between academics and their institution seems to be more a matter of organisational support than of external reputation. PER, as a proxy for externally derived status of the institution, was not found to influence academics' identification with, or commitment to, their institution. Instead, PER seemed to play a purely instrumental role in the work lives of academics in the study, and only appeared salient to less established academics in terms of assisting with their career goals. Alternatively, the results of this study found that academics' perceptions of support influenced both their OID, and AC. If nurtured, POS — typically conveying an informal status or internal respect to the academic — is therefore more likely to strengthen the psychological relationships between academics and their institutions than would a positive perception of the institution's external status.

The South African higher education sector is faced with many pressing challenges, not least of which is producing enough PhD graduates to sustain the academic profession, as well as recruiting, attracting or retaining young academics. Furthermore, under the current working conditions, universities may lose their established academics to other higher education institutions locally and abroad, and even to other professions. Through improving academics' perceptions of institutional support, however, it might be possible to increase both OID and AC, and in turn, thereby reduce the risk of academic staff attrition. University managers should therefore prioritise actions that provide the type of support that their academics need and want. The sustainability of the academic profession, and its ability to achieve success and transform society, depends on the availability of committed academics, and this can no longer be taken for granted.

REFERENCES

- Abdullah, N. A. C., & Bin Hamid, M. F. (2017). Work stress and organizational commitment: A study on academicians in a private university in Malaysia. *International Journal of Economic Research*, 14(15), 349–358.
- Abrams, D., & Hogg, M. A. (1990). An introduction to the social identity approach. In D. Abrams & M. A. Hogg (Eds.), *Social identity: Constructive and critical advances* (pp. 1–9). New York, NY: Springer-Verlag Publishing.
- Adcroft, A., & Taylor, D. (2013). Support for new career academics: An integrated model for research intensive university business and management schools. *Studies in Higher Education*, 38(6), 827–840. <http://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2011.599378>
- Albert, S., & Whetten, D. A. (1985). Organizational identity. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 7, 263–295.
- Allen, N. J. (2016). Commitment as a multidimensional construct. In J. P. Meyer (Ed.), *Handbook of employee commitment* (pp. 28–42). Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar Publishing Limited.
- Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (1990). The measurement and antecedents of affective, continuance and normative commitment to the organization. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 63(1), 1–18. <http://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8325.1990.tb00506.x>
- Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (1996). Affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization: An examination of construct validity. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 49(3), 252–76. <http://doi.org/10.1006/jvbe.1996.0043>
- Alniacik, U., Cigerim, E., Akcin, K., & Bayram, O. (2011). Independent and joint effects of perceived corporate reputation, affective commitment and job satisfaction on turnover intentions. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 24, 1177–1189. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2011.09.139>
- Altbach, P. G. (2003). Centers and peripheries in the academic profession: The special challenges of developing countries. In P. G. Altbach (Ed.), *The decline of the guru: The academic profession in developing and middle-income countries* (pp. 1–22). New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Altbach, P. G. (2015). The prospects for the BRICs: The new academic superpowers? In P. G. Altbach, Y. Androushchak, M. Kuzminov, M. Yudkevich, & L. Reisburg (Eds.), *The global future of higher education and the academic profession* (pp. 1–27). London, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Altbach, P. G., Reisberg, L., & Rumbley, L. E. (2009). *Trends in global higher education:*

- Tracking an academic revolution*. A report prepared for the UNESCO 2009 World Conference on Higher Education. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.bse.2004.04.006>
- Alvesson, M., & Spicer, A. (2017). (Un)conditional surrender? Why do professionals willingly comply with managerialism? *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 29(1), 29–45. <http://doi.org/10.4324/9781315640594>
- Ashforth, B. E. (2016). Exploring identity and identification in organizations: Time for some course corrections. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 23(4), 361–373. <http://doi.org/10.1177/1548051816667897>
- Ashforth, B. E., Harrison, S. H., & Corley, K. G. (2008). Identification in organizations: An examination of four fundamental questions. *Journal of Management*, 34(3), 325–374. <http://doi.org/10.1177/0149206308316059>
- Ashforth, B. E., & Mael, F. A. (1989). Social identity theory and the organization. *Academy of Management Review*, 14(1), 20–39. <http://doi.org/10.5465/AMR.1989.4278999>
- Badat, S. (2009). Theorising institutional change: Post-1994 South African higher education. *Studies in Higher Education*, 34(4), 455–467. <http://doi.org/10.1080/03075070902772026>
- Badat, S. (2010). *The challenges of transformation in higher education and training institutions in South Africa*. Paper Commissioned by the Development Bank of Southern Africa. Retrieved from [http://www.ru.ac.za/media/rhodesuniversity/content/vc/documents/The Challenges of Transformation in Higher Education and Training Institutions in South Africa.pdf](http://www.ru.ac.za/media/rhodesuniversity/content/vc/documents/The%20Challenges%20of%20Transformation%20in%20Higher%20Education%20and%20Training%20Institutions%20in%20South%20Africa.pdf)
- Bagraim, J. (2004). *The improbable commitment: Organizational commitment amongst South African knowledge workers*. Thesis, Degree of Doctor Philosophy. (PhD Thesis) Warwick Business School, University of Warwick, England. Retrieved from <http://go.warwick.ac.uk/wrap/1204>
- Ballim, Y., Scott, I., Simpson, G., & Webbstock, D. (2016). Regulation. In *South African higher education reviewed: Two decades of democracy* (pp. 63–1104). Pretoria, South Africa: CHE.
- Barkhuizen, N., & Rothmann, S. I. (2005). Work engagement of academic staff in South African higher education institutions. *Management Dynamics*, 15(1), 38–46.
- Barkhuizen, N., Schutte, N., & Nagel, L. (2017). Talent management, organisational satisfaction and turnover intentions of academic staff. In N. Delener & C. Schweikert (Eds.), *Changing business environment: Gamechangers, opportunities and risks* (pp. 22–30). Global Business and Technology Association.
- Baron, H. (2000). Riding the crest of a trough: The commitment of academics in mass higher

- education. *Teacher Development*, 4(1), 145–160.
<http://doi.org/10.1080/13664530000200098>
- Bartels, J. (2006). *Organizational identification and communication: employees' evaluations of internal communication and its effect on identification at different organizational levels*. (PhD Thesis) University of Twente.
- Bartels, J., Pruyn, A., de Jong, M., & Joustra, I. (2007). Multiple organizational identification levels and the impact of perceived external prestige and communication climate. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 28(2), 173–190.
- Baruch, Y., & Holtom, B. C. (2008). Survey response rate levels and trends in organizational research. *Human Relations*, 61(8), 1139–1160.
<http://doi.org/10.1177/0018726708094863>
- Battistelli, A., Galletta, M., Portoghese, I., Pohl, S., & Odoardi, C. (2013). Promoting organizational citizenship behaviors: The mediating role of intrinsic work motivation. *Le Travail Humain*, 76(3), 205. <http://doi.org/10.3917/th.763.0205>
- Bawa, A. C. (2017). From the NCHE to #FeesMustFall: An incomplete but important story of a difficult journey - Book review of “South African Higher Education Reviewed” by the Council of Higher Education. *South African Journal of Science*, 113((1/2)), 8–9.
<http://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org/10.17159/sajs.2017/a0194>
- Bazeley, P. (2012). Integrative analysis strategies for mixed data sources. *American Behavioral Scientist*, 56(6), 814–828. <http://doi.org/10.1177/0002764211426330>
- Bazeley, P. (2013). *Qualitative data analysis: Practical strategies*. London, UK: Sage.
- Becker, T. E., Eveleth, D. M., Billings, R. S., & Gilbert N.L. (1996). Foci and bases of employee commitment: Implications for job performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39(2), 464–482. <http://doi.org/10.5465/AMBPP.1995.17536587>
- Becker, T. E., Klein, H. J., & Meyer, J. P. (2009). Commitment in organizations: Accumulated wisdom and new directions. In H. J. Klein, T. E. Becker, & J. P. Meyer (Eds.), *Commitment in organizations: Accumulated wisdom and new directions* (pp. 419–447). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Bellamy, S., Morley, C., & Watty, K. (2003). Why business academics remain in Australian universities despite deteriorating working conditions and reduced job satisfaction: An intellectual puzzle. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 25(1), 13–28.
<http://doi.org/10.1080/13600800305740>
- Bentein, K., Stinglhamber, F., & Vandenberghe, C. (2002). Organization-, supervisor-, and workgroup-directed commitments and citizenship behaviours: A comparison of models. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 11(3), 341–362.

<http://doi.org/10.1080/13594320244000201>

- Berens, G., & Van Riel, C. B. M. (2004). Corporate associations in the academic literature: Three main streams of thought in the reputation measurement literature. *Corporate Reputation Review*, 7(2), 161–178. <http://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.crr.1540218>
- Bergami, M., & Bagozzi, R. P. (2000). Self-categorization, affective commitment and group self-esteem as distinct aspects of social identity in the organization. *The British Journal of Social Psychology*, 39 Pt 4, 555–577. <http://doi.org/10.1348/014466600164633>
- Bhattacharya, C. B., Rao, H., & Glynn, M. A. (1995). Understanding the bond of identification: An investigation of its correlates among art museum members. *Journal of Marketing*, 59, 46–57.
- Billot, J. (2011). The changing research context: Implications for leadership. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 33(1), 37–46. <http://doi.org/10.1080/1360080X.2011.537010>
- Bishop, J. W., Scott, K. D., Goldsby, M. G., & Cropanzano, R. (2005). A construct validity study of commitment and perceived support variables. *Group & Organization Management*, 30(2), 153–180. <http://doi.org/10.1177/1059601103255772>
- Blackmore, P., & Kandiko, C. B. (2011). Motivation in academic life: A prestige economy. *Research in Post-Compulsory Education*, 16(4), 399–411. <http://doi.org/10.1080/13596748.2011.626971>
- Blau, P. M. (1964). *Power and exchange in social life*. New York, NY: Wiley & Sons.
- Bloom, D. E., David, C., & Kevin, C. (2006). Higher education and poverty in sub-Saharan Africa. *International Higher Education*, Fall(45), 5–6. Retrieved from http://www.bc.edu/bc_org/avp/soe/cihe/newsletter/Number45/p5_Ziguras_McBurnie.htm
- Bolden, R., Gosling, J., & O'Brien, A. (2014). Citizens of the academic community? A societal perspective on leadership in UK higher education. *Studies in Higher Education*, 39(5), 754–770. <http://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2012.754855>
- Bosnjak, M., & Batinic, B. (2000). Understanding the willingness to participate in online-surveys: The case of e-mail questionnaires. In B. Batinic, U.-D. Reips, M. Bosnjak, & A. Werner (Eds.), *Online Social Sciences* (pp. 105–116). Cambridge, UK: Hogrefe & Huber.
- Bozalek, V., & Boughey, C. (2012). (Mis)framing higher education in South Africa. *Social Policy and Administration*, 46(6), 688–703.
- Bozionelos N. (2018). Evaluation of evidence on common method bias: Time to begin to think of leaving the myth behind? *Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the*

Academy of Management, August 10-14, Chicago, IL, USA.

- Brammer, S., Millington, A., & Rayton, B. (2007). The contribution of corporate social responsibility to organisational commitment. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 18(10), 1701–1719. Retrieved from <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09585190701570866>
- Brown, T. J., Dacin, P. A., Pratt, M. G., & Whetten, D. A. (2006). Identity, intended image, construed image, and reputation: An interdisciplinary framework and suggested terminology. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 34(2), 99–106. <http://doi.org/10.1177/0092070305284969>
- Bryman, A. (2006). Integrating quantitative and qualitative research: How is it done? *Qualitative Research*, 6, 97–113.
- Bryman, A. (2007). Barriers to integrating quantitative and qualitative research. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 1(1), 8–22. <http://doi.org/10.1177/2345678906290531>
- Bryman, A. (2016). *Social research methods* (5th ed.). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Bundy, C. (2006). Global patterns, local options? Changes in higher education internationally and some implications for South Africa. *Perspectives in Education*, 23(2), 85–98.
- Caesens, G., Marique, G., & Stinglhamber, F. (2014). The relationship between perceived organizational support and affective commitment: More than reciprocity, it is also a question of organizational identification. *Journal of Personnel Psychology*, 13(4), 167–173. <http://doi.org/10.1177/1059601112457200>
- Calvert, M., Lewis, T., & Spindler, J. (2011). Negotiating professional identities in higher education: dilemmas and priorities of academic staff. *Research in Education*, (86), 25–38. <http://doi.org/10.1080/13596748.2013.847232>
- Capelleras, J. L. (2005). Attitudes of academic staff towards their job and organisation: An empirical assessment. *Tertiary Education and Management*, 11(2), 147–166. <http://doi.org/10.1080/13583883.2005.9967144>
- Carmeli, A. (2005). Perceived external prestige, affective commitment, and citizenship behaviors. *Organization Studies*, 26(3), 443–464. <http://doi.org/10.1177/0170840605050875>
- Carmeli, A., & Freund, A. (2002). The relationship between work and workplace attitudes and perceived external prestige. *Corporate Reputation Review*, 5(1), 51–70. <http://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.crr.1540164>
- Carmeli, A., & Freund, A. (2009). Linking perceived external prestige and intentions to leave the organization: The mediating role of job satisfaction and affective commitment. *Journal of Social Service Research*, 35(3), 236–250.

- Carmeli, A., Gilat, G., & Weisberg, J. (2006). Perceived external prestige, organizational identification and affective commitment: A stakeholder approach. *Corporate Reputation Review*, 9(2), 92–104. <http://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.crr.1550014>
- Carmeli, A., & Tishler, A. (2005). Perceived organizational reputation and organizational performance: An empirical investigation of industrial enterprises. *Corporate Reputation Review*, 8(1), 13–30. <http://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.crr.1540236>
- Casimir, G., Ngee Keith Ng, Y., Yuan Wang, K., & Ooi, G. (2014). The relationships amongst leader-member exchange, perceived organizational support, affective commitment, and in-role performance. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 35(5), 366–385. <http://doi.org/10.1108/LODJ-04-2012-0054>
- Cetin, M. O. (2006). The relationship between job satisfaction, occupational and organizational commitment of academics. *The Journal of American Academy of Business*, 8(1), 78–89.
- Chaudhuri, A. (2016, March 16). The real meaning of Rhodes Must Fall. *The Guardian*. Retrieved from <http://www.theguardian.com/uk-news/2016/mar/16/the-real-meaning-of-rhodes-must-fall>
- Cheney, G. (1983). On the various and changing meanings of organizational membership: A field study of organizational identification. *Communication Monographs*, 50(4), 342–362. <http://doi.org/10.1080/03637758309390174>
- Chris, A. C., Maltin, E. R., & Meyer, J. P. (2016). Employee commitment and well-being. In J. P. (Eds.). Meyer (Ed.), *Handbook of employee commitment* (pp. 235–247). Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar Publishing Limited.
- Christ, O., Van Dick, R., Wagner, U., & Stellmacher, J. (2003). When teachers go the extra mile: Foci of organisational identification as determinants of different forms of organisational citizenship behaviour among schoolteachers. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 73(3), 329–341. <http://doi.org/10.1348/000709903322275867>
- Churchman, D. (2002). Voices of the academy: Academics' responses to the corporatizing of academia. *Critical Perspectives on Accounting*, 13(5–6), 643–656. <http://doi.org/10.1006/cpac.2002.0564>
- Churchman, D. (2006). Institutional commitments, individual compromises: Identity-related responses to compromise in an Australian university. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 28(1), 3–15. <http://doi.org/10.1080/13600800500283676>
- Ciftcioglu, A. (2010). Exploring the role of perceived external prestige in employee's emotional appeal: Evidence from a textile firm. *Business and Economics Research Journal*, 1(4), 85–96. Retrieved from <http://ideas.repec.org/a/ris/buecrj/0005.html>

- Clark, A., & Sousa, B. (2018). *How to be a happy academic*. London, UK: Sage.
- Clarke, C. A., Knights, D., & Jarvis, C. (2012). A labour of love? Academics in business schools. *Scandinavian Journal of Management*, 28(1), 5–15.
<http://doi.org/10.1016/j.scaman.2011.12.003>
- Cleary, M., Horsfall, J., & Hayter, M. (2014). Data collection and sampling in qualitative research: Does size matter? *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 70(3), 473–475.
<http://doi.org/10.1111/jan.12163>
- Clegg, S. (2008). Academic identities under threat? *British Educational Research Journal*, 34(3), 329–345. <http://doi.org/10.1080/01411920701532269>
- Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analyses for the social sciences*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Colquitt, J. A., Baer, M. D., Long, D. M., & Halvorsen-Ganepola, M. D. K. (2014). Scale indicators of social exchange relationships: A comparison of relative content validity. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, 99(4), 599–618. <http://doi.org/10.1037/a0036374>
- Cooper-Hakim, A., & Viswesvaran, C. (2005). The construct of work commitment: Testing an integrative framework. *Psychological Bulletin*, 131(2), 241–259.
<http://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.131.2.241>
- Cooper, D. (2015). Social justice and South African university student enrolment data by “Race”, 1998–2012: From “Skewed Revolution” to “Stalled Revolution.” *Higher Education Quarterly*, 69(3), 237–262. <http://doi.org/10.1111/hequ.12074>
- Cooper, D., & Subotsky, G. (2001). *The skewed revolution: Trends in South African higher education, 1988–98*. Education Policy Unit, University of the Western Cape, South Africa.
- Council on Higher Education. (2014). *VitalStats: Public higher education 2012*. Pretoria, South Africa: CHE. <http://doi.org/ISBN: 978-1-919856-95-7>
- Council on Higher Education. (2016). *VitalStats: Public higher education 2014*. Pretoria, South Africa: CHE. <http://doi.org/ISBN: 978-0-9946785-8-4>
- Council on Higher Education. (2017). *VitalStats: Public higher education 2015*. Pretoria, South Africa: CHE.
- Council on Higher Education. (2018). *HEMIS data 2010 to 2016*. Pretoria, South Africa: Department of Higher Education and Training.
- Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, V. L. (2011). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Creswell, J. W., & Poth, C. N. (2018). Philosophical assumptions and interpretive frameworks. In J. W. Creswell (Ed.), *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing*

- among five approaches* (4th ed., pp. 15–40). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Cropanzano, R., & Mitchell, M. S. (2005). Social Exchange Theory: An interdisciplinary review. *Journal of Management*, 31(6), 874–900.
<http://doi.org/10.1177/0149206305279602>
- Dearlove, J. (2002). A continuing role for academics: The governance of UK universities in the post-Dearing era. *Higher Education Quarterly*, 56(3), 257–275.
<http://doi.org/10.1111/1468-2273.00217>
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2000). The “What” and “Why” of goal pursuits: Human needs and the self-determination of behavior. *Psychological Inquiry*, 11(4), 37–41.
<http://doi.org/10.1207/S15327965PLI1104>
- Deem, R., & Brehony, K. J. (2005). Management as ideology: The case of “new managerialism” in higher education. *Oxford Review of Education*, 31(2), 217–235.
<http://doi.org/10.1080/03054980500117827>
- Degn, L. (2018). Academic sensemaking and behavioural response: Exploring how academics perceive and respond to identity threats in times of turmoil. *Studies in Higher Education*, 43(2), 305–321. <http://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2016.1168796>
- Department of Higher Education and Training. (2013). *White Paper for post-school education and training: Building an expanded, effective and integrated post-school system*. Pretoria, South Africa.
- Department of Higher Education and Training. (2017). *Statistics on post-school education and training in South Africa: 2015*. Pretoria, South Africa: DHET.
- Dillman, D. A., & Bowker, D. K. (2000). The web questionnaire challenge to survey methodologists. In B. Batinic, U.-D. Reips, M. Bosnjak, & A. Werner (Eds.), *Online social sciences* (pp. 53–71). Cambridge, UK: Hogrefe & Huber.
<http://doi.org/10.1097/00000433-198206000-00020>
- Drucker, P. F. (1989). *The new realities*. Oxford, UK: Heinemann.
- Dutton, J. E., & Dukerich, J. M. (1991). Keeping an eye on the mirror: The role of image and identity in organizational adaptation. *Academy of Management Journal*, 34, 517–557.
- Dutton, J. E., Dukerich, J. M., & Harquail, C. V. (1994). Organizational images and member identification. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 39(2), 239–263.
<http://doi.org/10.2307/2393235>
- Edwards, M. R. (2005). Organizational identification: A conceptual and operational review. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 7(4), 207–230.
<http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2370.2005.00114.x>
- Edwards, M. R. (2009). HR, perceived organisational support and organisational

- identification: An analysis after organisational formation. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 19(1), 91–115. <http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1748-8583.2008.00083.x>
- Edwards, M. R., & Peccei, R. (2010). Perceived organizational support, organizational identification, and employee outcomes: Testing a simultaneous multifoci model. *Journal of Personnel Psychology*, 9(1), 17–26. <http://doi.org/10.1027/1866-5888/a000007>
- Eisenberger, R., Armeli, S., Rexwinkel, B., Lynch, P. D., & Rhoades, L. (2001). Reciprocation of perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(1), 42–51. <http://doi.org/10.1037//0021-9010.86.1.42>
- Eisenberger, R., Huntington, R., Hutchison, S., & Sowa, D. (1986). Perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71(3), 500–507.
- Eisenberger, R., & Stinglhamber, F. 2011. Perceived organizational support: Fostering enthusiastic and productive employees. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Ellis, V., McNicholl, J., Blake, A., & McNally, J. (2014). Academic work and proletarianisation: A study of higher education-based teacher educators. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 40, 33–43. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2014.01.008>
- Fetters, M. D., Curry, L. A., & Creswell, J. W. (2013). Achieving integration in mixed methods designs: Principles and practices. *HSR: Health Services Research*, 48(6), 2134–2156. <http://doi.org/10.1111/1475-6773.12117>
- Field, L. K., & Buitendach, J. H. (2011). Happiness, work engagement and organisational commitment of support staff at a tertiary education institution in South Africa. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 37(1), 1–10. <http://doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v37i1.946>
- Fombrun, C. J. (1996). *Reputation: Realizing value from the corporate image*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- Fombrun, C. J., & Shanley, M. (1990). What's in a name? Reputation building and corporate strategy. *Academy of Management Journal*, 33(2), 233–258. <http://doi.org/10.2307/256324>
- Fuller, J. B., Hester, K., Barnett, T., Frey, L., Relyea, C., & Beu, D. (2006a). Perceived external prestige and internal respect: New insights into the organizational identification process. *Human Relations*, 59(6), 815–846. <http://doi.org/10.1177/0018726706067148>
- Fuller, J. B., Hester, K., Barnett, T., Frey, L., & Relyea, C. (2006b). Perceived organizational support and perceived external prestige: Predicting organizational attachment for university faculty, staff, and administrators. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 146(3), 327–347. <http://doi.org/10.3200/SOCP.146.3.327-347>
- Fuller, J. B., Marler, L., Hester, K., Frey, L., & Relyea, C. (2006c). Construed external image

- and organizational identification: A test of the moderating influence of need for self-esteem. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 146(6), 701–716.
<http://doi.org/10.3200/SOCP.146.6.701-716>
- Gagné, M., & Howard, J. (2016). A motivational model of employee attachment to an organization. In J. P. Meyer (Ed.), *Handbook of employee commitment* (pp. 59–69). Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar Publishing Limited.
- Geber, H. (2009). Research success and structured support: Developing early career academics in higher education. *South African Journal of Higher Education*, 24(3), 674–689. <http://doi.org/10.4314/sajhe.v23i4.51064>
- Gellatly, I. R., & Hedberg, L. M. (2016). Employee turnover and absenteeism. In J. P. Meyer (Ed.), *Handbook of employee commitment* (pp. 195–207). Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar Publishing Limited.
- Glynn, M. A. (1998). Individuals' need for organizational identification (nOID): Speculations on individual differences in the propensity to identify. In D. A. Whetten & P. C. Godfrey (Eds.), *Identity in organizations: Building theory through conversations* (pp. 238–244). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Goh, S. K., & Sandhu, M. S. (2013). Knowledge sharing among Malaysian academics: Influence of affective commitment and trust. *Electronic Journal of Knowledge Management*, 11(1), 38–48.
- Gonzalez, J. A., & Chakraborty, S. (2012). Image and similarity: An identity orientation perspective to organizational identification. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 33(1), 51–65. <http://doi.org/10.1108/01437731211193115>
- Gouldner, A. W. (1960). The norm of reciprocity: A preliminary statement. *American Sociological Review*, 25(2), 161–178.
- Greguras, G. J., & Diefendorff, J. M. (2009). Different fits satisfy different needs: Linking person-environment fit to employee commitment and performance using self-determination theory. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94(2), 465–477.
<http://doi.org/10.1037/a0014068>
- Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1982). Epistemological and methodological bases of naturalistic inquiry. *Educational Communication & Technology*, 30(4), 233–252.
<http://doi.org/10.1007/BF02765185>
- Guerrero, S., & Herrbach, O. (2009). Manager organizational commitment: A question of support or image? *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 20(7), 1536–1553. <http://doi.org/10.1080/09585190902983496>
- Guest, G., Bunce, A., & Johnson, L. (2006). How many interviews are enough? An

- experiment with data saturation and variability. *Field Methods*, 89(1), 59–82.
<http://doi.org/10.1177/1525822X05279903>
- Guetterman, T. C., & Creswell, J. W. (2015). Integrating quantitative and qualitative results in health science mixed methods research through joint displays. *Annals of Family Medicine*, 13(6), 554–561.
- Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2010). *Multivariate data analysis: A global perspective* (7th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Hall, M., & Symes, A. (2005). South African higher education in the first decade of democracy: From cooperative governance to conditional autonomy. *Studies in Higher Education*, 30(2), 199–212. <http://doi.org/10.1080/03075070500043317>
- Hameed, I., Roques, O., & Ali Arain, G. (2013). Nonlinear moderating effect of tenure on organizational identification (OID) and the subsequent role of OID in fostering readiness for change. *Group & Organization Management*, 38(1), 101–127.
- Harris, S. (2005). Rethinking academic identities in neo-liberal times. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 10(4), 421–433. <http://doi.org/10.1080/13562510500238986>
- Haryono, S., & Arafat, Y. (2017). *Effects of organizational culture and work motivation on job performance among the private universities' full-time faculties in South Sumatera Province. Information*. Retrieved from
[http://repository.umy.ac.id/bitstream/handle/123456789/12644/Artikel Jurnal Information.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y](http://repository.umy.ac.id/bitstream/handle/123456789/12644/Artikel%20Jurnal%20Information.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y)
- He, H., Pham, Q. H., Baruch, Y., & Zhu, W. (2014). Perceived organizational support and organizational identification: Joint moderating effects of employee exchange ideology and employee investment. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 25(20), 2772–2795. <http://doi.org/10.1007/s13398-014-0173-7.2>
- Helm, S. (2011). Employees' awareness of their impact on corporate reputation. *Journal of Business Research*, 64(7), 657–663. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2010.09.001>
- Helm, S. (2013). A matter of reputation and pride: Associations between perceived external reputation, pride in membership, job satisfaction and turnover intentions. *British Journal of Management*, 24(4), 542–556. <http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8551.2012.00827.x>
- Hemer, S. R. (2014). Finding time for quality teaching: an ethnographic study of academic workloads in the social sciences and their impact on teaching practices. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 33(3), 483–495.
<http://doi.org/10.1080/07294360.2013.841647>
- Henkel, M. (2005). Academic identity and autonomy in a changing policy environment. *Higher Education*, 49(1–2), 155–176. <http://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-004-2919-1>

- Herrbach, O., Mignonac, K., & Gatignon, A.-L. (2004). Exploring the role of perceived external prestige in managers' turnover intentions. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 15(8), 1390–1407.
<http://doi.org/10.1080/0958519042000257995>
- Higher Education Management Information System. (2016). *HEMIS resources: 2015 staff tables*. Pretoria, South Africa: Department of Higher Education and Training.
- Higher Education of South Africa. (2011). *A generation of growth: Proposal for a national programme to develop the next generation of academics for South African higher education*. Pretoria, South Africa: HESA.
- Higher Education of South Africa. (2014). *Summary of the study of remuneration of academic staff at SA universities and response from HESA*. Pretoria, South Africa: HESA.
- Highhouse, S., Broadfoot, A., Yugo, J. E., & Devendorf, S. A. (2009). Examining corporate reputation judgments with generalizability theory. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94(3), 782–789. <http://doi.org/10.1037/a0013934>
- Hogg, M. A., & Terry, D. J. (2000). Social identity and self-categorization processes in organizational contexts. *Academy of Management Review*, 25(1), 121–140.
<http://doi.org/10.5465/AMR.2000.2791606>
- Hornsey, M. J. (2008). Social identity theory and self-categorization theory: A historical review. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass*, 2, 204–222.
<http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1751-9004.2007.00066.x>
- Horwitz, F. M., Heng, C. T., & Quazi, H. A. (2003). Finders, keepers? Attracting, motivating and retaining knowledge workers. *Human Resource Management*, 13(4), 23–44.
- Houston, D., Meyer, L. H., & Paewai, S. (2006). Academic staff workloads and job satisfaction: Expectations and values in academe. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 28(1), 1–0. <http://doi.org/10.1080/13600800500283734>
- Hrebiniak, L. G., & Alutto, J. A. (1972). Personal and role-related factors in the development of organizational commitment. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 17(4), 555–573.
- IBM Corporation. (2016). *IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows: Version 24.0*. Armonk, NY: IBM.
- Ivankova, N. V., Creswell, J. W., & Stick, S. L. (2006). Using mixed-methods sequential explanatory design: From theory to practice. *Field Methods*, 18(3), 3–20.
<http://doi.org/10.1177/1525822X05282260>
- Jansen, J. (2017). *As by fire: The end of the South African university*. Cape Town, South Africa: Tafelberg.
- Jaros, S. J. (1997). An assessment of Meyer and Allen's (1991) three-component model of

- organizational commitment and turnover intentions. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 51(51), 319–337. <http://doi.org/10.5465/AMBPP.1995.17536599>
- Johnson, B. R., & Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2013). Mixed methods research: A research paradigm whose time has come. *American Educational Research Association*, 33(7), 14–26.
- Joiner, T. A., & Bakalis, S. (2006). The antecedents of organizational commitment: The case of Australian casual academics. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 20(6), 439–452. <http://doi.org/10.1108/09513540610683694>
- Kamasak, R. (2011). The influence of perceived external prestige on job satisfaction and turnover intentions. *Journal of Business and Economics*, 2(3), 209–221.
- Kang, D., Stewart, J., & Kim, H. (2011). The effects of perceived external prestige, ethical organizational climate, and leader-member exchange (LMX) quality on employees' commitments and their subsequent attitudes. *Personnel Review*, 40(6), 761–784. <http://doi.org/10.1108/00483481111169670>
- King, N., & Brooks, J. M. (2017). *Template analysis for business and management students*. London, UK: Sage.
- King, N., & Horrocks, C. (2010). *Interviews in qualitative research*. London, UK: Sage.
- Kinnear, L., & Sutherland, M. (2000). Determinants of organisational commitment amongst knowledge workers. *South African Journal of Business Management*, 31(3), 106–112.
- Klein, H. J. (2013). Advances in workplace commitments: Introduction to the special issue. *Human Resource Management Review*, 23(2), 127–130. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2012.07.003>
- Klein, H. J. (2014). Distinguishing commitment bonds from other attachments in a target-free manner. In H. J. Klein, J. R. Hollenbeck, & A. M. E. Ryan (Eds.), *The nature of work: Advances in psychological theory, methods and practice* (pp. 117–146). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Klein, H. J., & Brinsfield, C. T. (2016). Affective consequences of workplace commitment. In J. P. Meyer (Ed.), *Handbook of employee commitment* (pp. 248–260). Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar Publishing Limited.
- Klein, H. J., Molloy, J. C., & Brinsfield, C. T. (2012). Reconceptualizing workplace commitment to redress a stretched construct: Revisiting assumptions and removing confounds. *Academy of Management Review*, 37(1), 130–151. <http://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2010.0018>
- Klein, H. J., Molloy, J. C., & Cooper, J. T. (2009). Conceptual foundations: Construct definitions and theoretical representations of workplace commitments. In H. J. Klein, T. E. Becker, & J. P. Meyer (Eds.), *Commitment in organizations: Accumulated wisdom*

- and new directions* (pp. 3–36). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Klein, H. J., & Park, H. M. (2016). Commitment as a unidimensional construct. In J. P. Meyer (Ed.), *Handbook of employee commitment* (pp. 15–27). Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar Publishing Limited.
- Klein, H. J., Wesson, M. J., Hollenbeck, J. R., & Alge, B. J. (1999). Goal commitment and the goal-setting process: Conceptual clarification and empirical synthesis. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, 84(6), 885–896. <http://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.84.6.885>
- Klem, L. (2000). Structural equation modeling. In L. G. Grimm & P. R. Yarnold (Eds.), *Reading and understanding more multivariate statistics* (pp. 227–260). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Kline, R. B. (2011). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling* (3rd ed.). New York, NY: The Guilford Press.
- Koen, C. (2003). Challenges and pressures facing the academic profession in South Africa. In P. G. Altbach (Ed.), *The decline of the guru: The academic profession in developing and middle-income countries* (pp. 297–322). New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Kreiner, G. E., & Ashforth, B. E. (2004). Evidence toward an expanded model of organizational identification. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 25(1), 1–27. <http://doi.org/10.1002/job.234>
- Kurtessis, J. N., Eisenberger, R., Ford, M. T., Buffardi, L. C., Stewart, K. A., & Adis, C. S. (2017). Perceived organizational support: A meta-analytic evaluation of organizational support theory. *Journal of Management*, 43(6), 1854–1884. <http://doi.org/10.1177/0149206315575554>
- Lange, L., & Luescher-Mamashela, T. (2016). Governance. In *South African higher education reviewed: Two decades of democracy* (pp. 105–142). Pretoria, South Africa: CHE.
- Lee, E., Park, T., & Koo, B. (2015). Identifying organizational identification as a basis for attitudes and behaviors : A meta-analytic review. *Psychological Bulletin*, 141(5), 1049–1080.
- Lee, J., & Peccei, R. (2007). Perceived organizational support and affective commitment: The mediating role of organization-based self-esteem in the context of job insecurity. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 28(6), 661–685. <http://doi.org/10.1002/j>
- Leedy, P. D., & Ormrod, J. E. (2010). *Practical research planning and design* (9th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education.
- Leedy, P. D., & Ormrod, J. E. (2014). *Practical research planning and design* (10th ed.). London, UK: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Leibowitz, B., Bozalek, V., Van Schalkwyk, S., & Winberg, C. (2015). Institutional context

- matters: The professional development of academics as teachers in South African higher education. *Higher Education*, 69(2), 315–330. <http://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-014-9777-2>
- Lew, T.-Y. (2009). The relationships between perceived organizational support, felt obligation, affective organizational commitment and turnover intention of academics working with private higher educational institutions in Malaysia. *European Journal of Social Sciences*, 9(1), 72–87.
- Li, C. H. (2016). Confirmatory factor analysis with ordinal data: Comparing robust maximum likelihood and diagonally weighted least squares. *Behavior Research Methods*, 48(3), 936–949. <http://doi.org/10.3758/s13428-015-0619-7>
- Lievens, F., Van Hove, G., & Anseel, F. (2007). Organizational identity and employer image: Towards a unifying framework. *British Journal of Management*, 18(s1), S45–S59. <http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8551.2007.00525.x>
- Mael, F. A., & Ashforth, B. E. (1992). Alumni and their alma mater: A partial test of the reformulated model of organizational identification. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 13(2), 103–123. <http://doi.org/10.1002/job.4030130202>
- Mael, F. A., & Tetrick, L. E. (1992). Identifying organizational identification. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 52, 813–824.
- Marcus, B. (2016). Counterproductive work behaviors. In J. P. Meyer (Ed.), *Handbook of employee commitment* (pp. 222–234). Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar Publishing Limited.
- Marginson, S. (2000). Rethinking academic work in the global era. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 22(1), 23–35. <http://doi.org/10.1080/713678133>
- Marique, G., Stinglhamber, F., Desmette, D., Caesens, G., & De Zanet, F. (2013). The relationship between perceived organizational support and affective commitment: A social identity perspective. *Group & Organization Management*, 38(1), 68–100. <http://doi.org/10.1177/1059601112457200>
- Mathieu, J. E., & Zajac, D. M. (1990). A review and meta-analysis of the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of organizational commitment. *Psychological Bulletin*, 108(2), 171–194. <http://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.108.2.171>
- McKenna, S. (2016). Teaching and Learning. In *South African higher education reviewed: Two decades of democracy* (pp. 143–192). Pretoria, South Africa: CHE.
- McNaughton, S. M., & Billot, J. (2016). Negotiating academic teacher identity shifts during higher education contextual change. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 21(6), 644–658. <http://doi.org/10.1080/13562517.2016.1163669>
- Meng, H., Luo, Y., Huang, L., Wen, J., Ma, J., & Xi, J. (2017). On the relationships of

- resilience with organizational commitment and burnout : a social exchange perspective. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 5192, 1–20.
<http://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2017.1381136>
- Mensele, C., & Coetzee, M. (2014). Job embeddedness, organisational commitment and voluntary turnover of academic staff at a higher education institution in South Africa. *South African Journal of Labour Relations*, 38(1), 9–30.
- Mercurio, Z. A. (2015). Affective commitment as a core essence of organizational commitment: An integrative literature review. *Human Resource Development Review*, 14(4), 389–414. <http://doi.org/10.1177/1534484315603612>
- Meyer, J. P. (2009). Commitment in a changing world of work. In H. J. Klein, T. E. Becker, & J. P. Meyer (Eds.), *Commitment in organizations: Accumulated wisdom and new directions* (pp. 37–68). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Meyer, J. P. (2016). Employee commitment: An introduction and roadmap. In J. P. Meyer (Ed.), *Handbook of employee commitment*. Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar Publishing Limited.
- Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1991). A three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment. *Human Resource Management Review*, 1(1), 61–89.
- Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1997). *Commitment in the workplace*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Meyer, J. P., Allen, N. J., & Smith, C. a. (1993). Commitment to organizations and occupations: Extension and test of a three-component conceptualization. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78(4), 538–551. <http://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.78.4.538>
- Meyer, J. P., Becker, T. E., & Van Dick, R. (2006). Social identities and commitments at work; toward an integrative model. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 27(5), 665–683. <http://doi.org/10.1002/job.383>
- Meyer, J. P., Becker, T. E., & Vandenberghe, C. (2004). Employee commitment and motivation: A conceptual analysis and integrative model. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(6), 991–1007. <http://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.89.6.991>
- Meyer, J. P., & Herscovitch, L. (2001). Commitment in the workplace: Toward a general model. *Human Resource Management Review*, 11(3), 299–326.
- Meyer, J. P., & Maltin, E. R. (2010). Employee commitment and well-being: A critical review, theoretical framework and research agenda. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 77(2), 323–337. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2010.04.007>
- Meyer, J. P., Stanley, D. J., Herscovitch, L., & Topolnytsky, L. (2002). Affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization: A meta-analysis of antecedents, correlates, and consequences. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 61(1), 20–

52. <http://doi.org/10.1006/jvbe.2001.1842>
- Meyer, J. P., Stanley, L. J., & Parfyonova, N. M. (2012). Employee commitment in context: The nature and implication of commitment profiles. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 80(1), 1–16. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2011.07.002>
- Mignonac, K., Herrbach, O., & Guerrero, S. (2006a). *A matter of prestige? Examining the role of perceived organizational image in turnover intentions of key people*. Paper presented at the XVème Conférence Internationale de Management Stratégique, Annecy, Geneva, Switzerland, June 13-16. Retrieved from <http://hal.archives-ouvertes.fr/halshs-00079146/>
- Mignonac, K., Herrbach, O., & Guerrero, S. (2006b). The interactive effects of perceived external prestige and need for organizational identification on turnover intentions. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 69(3), 477–493. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2006.05.006>
- Miller, M. M., & Dillman, D. A. (2011). Improving response to web and mixed-mode surveys. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 75(2), 249–269.
- Miscenko, D., & Day, D. V. (2016). Identity and identification at work. *Organizational Psychology Review*, 6(3), 215–247. <http://doi.org/10.1177/2041386615584009>
- Morgan, D. L. (2014). Pragmatism as a paradigm for social research. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 20(8), 1045–1053. <http://doi.org/10.1177/1077800413513733>
- Morley, L. (2003). *Quality and power in higher education*. London, UK: McGraw-Hill Education.
- Morrow, P. C. (1983). Concept redundancy in organizational research: The case of work commitment. *The Academy of Management Review*, 8(3), 486–500.
- Mowday, R. T., Porter, L. W., & Steers, R. M. (1982). *Employee—organization linkages: The psychology of commitment, absenteeism, and turnover*. New York, NY: Academic Press.
- Mowday, R. T., Steers, R. M., & Porter, L. W. (1979). The measurement of organizational commitment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 14(2), 224–247. [http://doi.org/10.1016/0001-8791\(79\)90072-1](http://doi.org/10.1016/0001-8791(79)90072-1)
- Musteen, M., Datta, D. K., & Kemmerer, B. (2010). Corporate reputation: Do board characteristics matter? *British Journal of Management*, 21(2), 498–510. <http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8551.2009.00676.x>
- Muthén, B. O., & Muthén, L. K. (2014). *MPlus: Version 7.31*. Los Angeles, CA: Muthén & Muthén.
- Ngo, H.-Y., Loi, R., Foley, S., Zheng, X., & Zhang, L. (2013). Perceptions of organizational context and job attitudes: The mediating effect of organizational identification. *Asia*

- Pacific Journal of Management*, 30(1), 149–168. <http://doi.org/10.1007/s10490-012-9289-5>
- Nixon, J. (1996). Professional identity and the restructuring of higher education. *Studies in Higher Education*, 21(1), 5–16. <http://doi.org/10.1080/03075079612331381417>
- Ntshoe, I. M., Higgs, P., Higgs, L. G., & Wolhuter, C. C. (2008). The changing academic profession in higher education and new managerialism and corporatism in South Africa. *South African Journal of Higher Education*, 22(2), 391–403. <http://doi.org/10.4314/sajhe.v22i2.25793>
- Nyquist, J. G., Hitchcock, M. a, & Teherani, A. (2000). Faculty satisfaction in academic medicine. *New Directions for Institutional Research*, 105, 33–43. <http://doi.org/10.1002/ir.10503>
- O'Meara, K., & Bloomgarden, A. (2010). The pursuit of prestige: The experience of institutional striving from a faculty perspective. *The Journal of the Professoriate*, 4(1), 40–74.
- Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Johnson, R. B. (2006). The validity issue in mixed research. *Research in the Schools*, 13(1), 48–63. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsis.2005.08.002>
- Owuamalam, C. K., & Zagefka, H. (2011). Downplaying a compromised social image: The effect of metastereotype valence on social identification. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 41(4), 528–537. <http://doi.org/10.1002/ejsp.805>
- Parker, L. (2011). University corporatisation: Driving redefinition. *Critical Perspectives on Accounting*, 22(4), 434–450. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.cpa.2010.11.002>
- Pather, R. (2016, October 11). #FeesMustFall: The academics who stand behind the students. *Mail & Guardian*. Retrieved from <https://mg.co.za/article/2016-10-11-feesmustfall-the-academics-who-stand-behind-the-students>
- Pienaar, C., & Bester, C. (2006). Typical career dilemmas of academic staff during the early career phase within a changing South African higher education institution. *South African Journal of Education*, 26(4), 581–594.
- Podnar, K. (2011). Perceived external prestige, organizational identification and organizational commitment: An empirical examination. *Teorija in Praksa*, 48(6).
- Podnar, K., & Golob, U. (2015). The twin foci of organisational identification and their relevance for commitment: A study of marketing communications industry. *Journal of Business Economics and Management*, 16(1), 214–227. <http://doi.org/10.3846/16111699.2013.791636>
- Porter, L. W., Steers, R. M., Mowday, R. T., & Boulian, P. V. (1974). Organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover among psychiatric technicians. *Journal of*

- Applied Psychology*, 59(5), 603–609. <http://doi.org/10.1037/h0037335>
- QSR International. (2017). *NVivo 11 Pro for Windows*. QSR International Pty Ltd.
- Randall, D. M. (1987). Commitment and the organization: The organization man revisited. *Academy of Management Review*, 12(3), 460–471.
<http://doi.org/10.5465/AMR.1987.4306561>
- Rhee, M., & Valdez, M. E. (2009). Contextual factors surrounding reputation damage with potential implications for reputation repair. *Academy of Management Review*, 34(1), 146–168. <http://doi.org/10.5465/AMR.2009.35713324>
- Rhoades, L., & Eisenberger, R. (2002). Perceived organizational support: A review of the literature. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(4), 698–714. <http://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.87.4.698>
- Rhoades, L., Eisenberger, R., & Armeli, S. (2001). Affective commitment to the organization: The contribution of perceived organizational support. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(5), 825–836.
- Riggle, R. J., Edmondson, D. R., & Hansen, J. D. (2009). A meta-analysis of the relationship between perceived organizational support and job outcomes: 20 years of research. *Journal of Business Research*, 62(10), 1027–1030.
<http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2008.05.003>
- Riketta, M. (2005). Organizational identification: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 66(2), 358–384. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2004.05.005>
- Riketta, M., & Van Dick, R. (2005). Foci of attachment in organizations: A meta-analytic comparison of the strength and correlates of workgroup versus organizational identification and commitment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 67(3), 490–510.
<http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2004.06.001>
- Rindova, V. P., Williamson, I. O., & Petkova, A. P. (2010). Reputation as an intangible asset: Reflections on theory and methods in two empirical studies of business school reputations. *Journal of Management*, 36(3), 610–619.
<http://doi.org/10.1177/0149206309343208>
- Rindova, V. P., Williamson, I. O., Petkova, A. P., & Sever, J. M. (2005). Being good or being known: An empirical examination of the dimensions, antecedents, and consequences of organizational reputation. *Academy of Management Journal*, 48(6), 1033–1049.
<http://doi.org/10.5465/AMJ.2005.19573108>
- Ritchie, J., Lewis, J., Elam, G., Tennant, R., & Rahim, N. (2014). Designing and selecting samples. In J. Ritchie, J. Lewis, C. McNaughton Nicholls, & R. Ormston (Eds.), *Qualitative research practice: A guide for social science students and researchers* (2nd

- ed., pp. 111–145). London, UK: Sage.
- Roberts, P. (2013). Academic dystopia: Knowledge, performativity, and tertiary education. *Review of Education, Pedagogy, and Cultural Studies*, 35(1), 27–43.
<http://doi.org/10.1080/10714413.2013.753757>
- Rothmann, S. I., & Barkhuizen, N. (2008). Burnout of academic staff in South African higher education institutions. *South African Journal of Higher Education*, 22(2), 439–456.
<http://doi.org/10.4314/sajhe.v22i2.25796>
- Rothmann, S. I., & Jordaan, G. M. E. (2006). Job demands, job resources and work engagement of academic staff in South African higher education institutions. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 32(4), 87–96. <http://doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v39i1.1106>
- Samuel, M. O., & Chipunza, C. (2013). Attrition and retention of senior academics at institutions of higher learning in South Africa: The strategies, complexities and realities. *Journal of Social Science*, 35(2), 97–109.
- Schaarschmidt, M., Walsh, G., & Ivens, S. (2015). Perceived external reputation as a driver of organizational citizenship behavior: Replication and extension. *Corporate Reputation Review*, 18, 314–336. <http://doi.org/10.1057/crr.2015.19>
- Schumacker, R. E., & Lomax, R. G. (2010). *A beginner's guide to structural equation modeling* (3rd ed.). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Scott, P. (2000). Globalisation and higher education: Challenges for the 21st century. *Journal of International Studies in International Education*, 4(1), 3–10.
- Seyal, A. H., & Afzaal, T. (2013). An investigation of relationship among emotional intelligence, organizational commitment and job satisfaction: Evidence from academics in Brunei Darussalam. *International Business Research*, 6(3), 217–228.
- Shantz, A., Alfes, K., & Latham, G. P. (2016). The buffering effect of perceived organisational support on the relationship between work engagement and behavioral outcomes. *Human Resource Management*, 55(1), 25–38.
- Shin, J. C., & Jung, J. (2014). Academics job satisfaction and job stress across countries in the changing academic environments. *Higher Education*, 67(5), 603–620.
- Shore, L. M., & Wayne, S. J. (1993). Commitment and employee behavior: Comparison of affective commitment and continuance commitment with perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78(5), 774–780. <http://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.78.5.774>
- Simkins, C., Scott, I., Stumpf, R., & Webbstock, D. (2016). Funding. In *South African higher education reviewed: Two decades of democracy* (pp. 321–380). Pretoria, South Africa: CHE.

- Simpson, G., & Gevers, W. (2016). Research. In *South African higher education reviewed: Two decades of democracy* (pp. 19–240). Pretoria, South Africa: CHE.
- Sivo, S. A., Saunders, C., Chang, Q., & Jiang, J. J. (2006). How low should you go? Low response rates and the validity of inference in IS questionnaire research. *Journal of the Association for Information Systems*, 7(6), 351–413. <http://doi.org/Article>
- Slaughter, S., & Leslie, L. L. (1997). *Academic capitalism: Politics, policies, and the entrepreneurial university*. Baltimore, MD: The Johns Hopkins University Press.
- Sluss, D. M., Klimchak, M., & Holmes, J. J. (2008). Perceived organizational support as a mediator between relational exchange and organizational identification. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 73(3), 457–464. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2008.09.001>
- Smeenk, S. G. A., Eisinga, R. N., Teelken, J. C., & Doorewaard, J. A. C. M. (2006). The effects of HRM practices and antecedents on organizational commitment among university employees. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 17(12), 2035–2054. <http://doi.org/10.1080/09585190600965449>
- Smidts, A., Pruyn, A. T. H., & Van Riel, C. B. M. (2001). The impact of employee communication and perceived external prestige on organizational identification. *Academy of Management Journal*, 44(5), 1051–1062. <http://doi.org/10.2307/3069448>
- Solinger, O. N., Van Olffen, W., & Roe, R. A. (2008). Beyond the three-component model of organizational commitment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93(1), 70–83. <http://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.93.1.70>
- Spencer, L., Ritchie, J., O'Connor, W., & Barnard, M. (2014). Analysis principles and processes. In J. Ritchie, J. Lewis, M. N. C., & R. Ormston (Eds.), *Qualitative research practice: A guide for social science students and researchers* (2nd ed., pp. 269–293). London, UK: Sage.
- Stangor, C. (2015). *Research methods for the behavioral sciences* (5th ed.). Mountain View, CA: Cengage.
- Stensaker, B. (2015). Organizational identity as a concept for understanding university dynamics. *Higher Education*, 69(1), 103–115. <http://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-014-9763-8>
- Stinglhamber, F., Caesens, G., Clark, L., & Eisenberger, R. (2016). Perceived organizational support. In J. P. Meyer (Ed.), *Handbook of employee commitment* (pp. 333–345). Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar Publishing Limited.
- Stinglhamber, F., Marique, G., Caesens, G., Desmette, D., Hansez, I., Hanin, D., & Bertrand, F. (2015). Employees' organizational identification and affective organizational commitment: An integrative approach. *Plos One*, 10(4), 1–23. <http://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0123955>

- Sung, M., & Yang, S.-U. (2008). Toward the model of university image: The influence of brand personality, external prestige, and reputation. *Journal of Public Relations Research*, 20(4), 357–376. <http://doi.org/10.1080/10627260802153207>
- Suomi, K., Kuoppakangas, P., Hytti, U., Hampden-Turner, C., & Kangaslahti, J. (2014). Focusing on dilemmas challenging reputation management in higher education. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 28(4), 461–478. <http://doi.org/10.1108/IJEM-04-2013-0046>
- Tajfel, H. (1978). Social categorization, social identity and social comparison. In H. Tajfel (Ed.), *Differentiation between social groups: Studies in the social psychology of intergroup relations* (pp. 61–76). London, UK: Academic Press.
- Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. C. (1979). An integrative theory of intergroup conflict. In S. Worchel & W. G. Austin (Eds.), *The Social psychology of intergroup relations* (pp. 33–47). Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole.
- Tashakkori, A., & Teddlie, C. (2003). *Handbook of mixed methods in social & behavioural research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Taylor, P. G. (1999). *Making sense of academic life*. London, UK: The Society for Research into Higher Education and Open University Press.
- Teddlie, C., & Tashakkori, A. (2009). *Foundations of mixed methods research: Integrating quantitative and qualitative approaches in the social and behavioural sciences*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Teelken, C. (2012). Compliance or pragmatism: How do academics deal with managerialism in higher education? A comparative study in three countries. *Studies in Higher Education*, 37(3), 271–290.
- Theron, M., Barkhuizen, N., & Du Plessis, Y. (2014). Managing the academic talent void: Investigating factors in academic turnover and retention in South Africa. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 40(1), 1–14. <http://doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v40i1.1117>
- Tight, M. (2010). Are academic workloads increasing? The post-war survey evidence in the UK. *Higher Education Quarterly*, 64(2), 200–215. <http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2273.2009.00433.x>
- Trotter, R. T. (2012). Qualitative research sample design and sample size: Resolving and unresolved issues and inferential imperatives. *Preventive Medicine*, 55(5), 398–400. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.ypmed.2012.07.003>
- Turner, J. C., Hogg, M. A., Oakes, P. J., Reicher, S. D., & Wetherell, M. S. (1987). *Rediscovering the social group: A self-categorization theory*. Oxford, UK: Blackwell.
- Tyler, T. R. (1999). Why people cooperate with organizations: An identity-based perspective.

- In R. I. Sutton & B. M. Staw (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior* (pp. 201–246). Amsterdam, The Netherlands: Elsevier Science/JAI Press.
- Tyler, T. R., & Blader, S. L. (2003). The group engagement model: Procedural justice, social identity, and cooperative behavior. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 7(4), 349–361. http://doi.org/10.1207/S15327957PSPR0704_07
- Ullrich, J., Wieseke, J., Christ, O., Schulze, M., & Van Dick, R. (2007). The identity-matching principle: Corporate and organizational identification in a franchising system. *British Journal of Management*, 18, S29–S44. <http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8551.2007.00524.x>
- Umbach, P. D., & Wawrzynski, M. R. (2005). Faculty do matter: The role of college faculty in student learning and engagement. *Research in Higher Education*, 46(2), 153–184. <http://doi.org/10.1007/s11162-004-1598-1>
- Universities South Africa. (2015). *Reflections on higher education transformation: Annexure 5*. Discussion paper prepared for the second national Higher Education Transformation Summit, 15-17 October. Retrieved from <http://www.justice.gov.za/commissions/FeesHET/docs/2015-HESummit-Annexure05.pdf>
- Usher, R. (2002). A diversity of doctorates: Fitness for the knowledge economy? *Higher Education Research & Development*, 21(2), 143–153. <http://doi.org/10.1080/0729436022014406>
- Van Dick, R. (2004). My job is my castle: Identification in organizational contexts. In C. L. Cooper & I. T. Robertson (Eds.), *International review of industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 171–203). London, UK: Wiley & Sons. <http://doi.org/10.1002/0470013311.ch6>
- Van Dick, R. (2016). Organizational identification. In J. Meyer (Ed.), *Handbook of employee commitment* (pp. 106–118). Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar Publishing Limited.
- Van Dick, R., Becker, T. E., & Meyer, J. P. (2006). Commitment and identification: Forms, foci, and future. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 27(5), 545–548. <http://doi.org/10.1002/job.384>
- Van Dick, R., Wagner, U., Stellmacher, J., & Christ, O. (2004). The utility of a broader conceptualization of organizational identification: Which aspects really matter? *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 77, 171–191. <http://doi.org/10.1348/096317904774202135>
- Van Knippenberg, D., & Sleebos, E. (2006). Organizational identification versus organizational commitment: Self-definition, social exchange, and job attitudes. *Journal*

- of *Organizational Behavior*, 27(5), 571–584. <http://doi.org/10.1002/job.359>
- Van Knippenberg, D., Van Dick, R., & Tavares, S. (2007). Social identity and social exchange: Identification, support, and withdrawal from the job. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 37(3), 457–477. <http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.2007.00168.x>
- Van Knippenberg, D., & Van Schie, E. C. M. (2000). Foci and correlates of organizational identification. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 73(2), 137–147. <http://doi.org/10.1348/096317900166949>
- Vandenberghe, C., Bentein, K., & Stinglhamber, F. (2004). Affective commitment to the organization, supervisor, and work group: Antecedents and outcomes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 64(1), 47–71. [http://doi.org/10.1016/S0001-8791\(03\)00029-0](http://doi.org/10.1016/S0001-8791(03)00029-0)
- W. Lam, L., & Liu, Y. (2014). The identity-based explanation of affective commitment. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 29(3), 321–340. <http://doi.org/10.1108/JMP-02-2012-0036>
- Waitere, H. J., Wright, J., Tremaine, M., Brown, S., & Pausé, C. J. (2011). Choosing whether to resist or reinforce the new managerialism: The impact of performance-based research funding on academic identity. *Higher Education Research and Development*, 30(2), 205–217. <http://doi.org/10.1080/07294360.2010.509760>
- Walker, K. (2010). A systematic review of the corporate reputation literature: Definition, measurement, and theory. *Corporate Reputation Review*, 12(4), 357–387. <http://doi.org/10.1057/crr.2009.26>
- Wartick, S. L. (2002). Measuring corporate reputation: Definition and data. *Business & Society*, 41(4), 371–392. <http://doi.org/10.1177/0007650302238774>
- Webbstock, D. (2016). Overview. In *South African higher education reviewed: Two decades of democracy* (pp. 5–62). Pretoria, South Africa: CHE.
- Webbstock, D., & Schoole, C. (2016). Academic staffing. In *South African higher education reviewed: Two decades of democracy* (pp. 279–320). Pretoria, South Africa: CHE.
- Webster, E., & Mosoetsa, S. (2002). At the chalk-face: Managerialism and the changing academic workplace, 1995-2001. *Transformation*, 48, 59–82.
- Wegner, T. (2016). *Applied business statistics: Methods and Excel based applications* (4th ed.). Cape Town, South Africa: Juta.
- Williams, R., Leahy, A., & Jensen, P. (2017). *U21 ranking of national higher education systems*. A project sponsored by Universitas 21, Melbourne, Australia: Institute of Applied Economic and Social Research, University of Melbourne. Retrieved from <http://www.universitas21.com/article/projects/?parentID=152>
- Winter, R. (2009). Academic manager or managed academic? Academic identity schisms in

- higher education. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 31(2), 121–131.
<http://doi.org/10.1080/13600800902825835>
- Winter, R., Taylor, T., & Sarros, J. (2000). Trouble at Mill: Quality of academic worklife issues within a comprehensive Australian university. *Studies in Higher Education*, 25(3), 279–294. <http://doi.org/10.1080/713696158>
- Wyatt, M., & Silvester, J. (2015). Reflections on the labyrinth : Investigating black and minority ethnic leaders ' career experiences. *Human Relations*, 68(8), 1243–1269.
<http://doi.org/10.1177/0018726714550890>
- Yalabik, Z. Y., Swart, J., Kinnie, N., & Van Rossenberg, Y. (2017). Multiple foci of commitment and intention to quit in knowledge-intensive organizations (KIOs): What makes professionals leave? *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 28(2), 417–447. <http://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2016.1244918>
- Yielder, J., & Codling, A. (2004). Management and leadership in the contemporary university. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 26(3), 315–328.
<http://doi.org/10.1080/1360080042000290177>
- Zepke, N. (2007). Leadership, power and activity systems in a higher education context: Will distributive leadership serve in an accountability driven world? *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, 10(3), 301–314. <http://doi.org/10.1080/13603120601181514>

APPENDICES

Appendix A Research Site: Academic Staff Composition

Table A1 *Academic Staff by Employment Status and Race*

	2016		
	Perm	Temp	Total
African	14%	24%	21%
Coloured	12%	11%	11%
Indian	8%	7%	7%
White	63%	53%	56%
Unknown	3%	5%	5%
Total	100%	100%	100%

Source: HEMIS data 2010–2016, DHET. Extracted for CHE, 2018.

Table A2 *Academic Staff by Gender and Employment Status*

	2016		
	Perm	Temp	Total
Women	46%	52%	50%
Men	54%	48%	50%
Unknown	0%	0%	0%
Total	100%	100%	100%

Source: HEMIS data 2010–2016, DHET. Extracted for CHE, 2018.

Table A3 *Permanent Academic Staff by Age Group and Academic Status*

Academic Status	Age Group							Total
	<35	35–39	40–44	45–49	50–54	55–59	60+	
Professor		4	7	24	52	44	74	205
Associate Professor		7	28	62	36	45	44	222
Senior Lecturer	12	54	71	83	47	32	36	335
Lecturer	99	74	55	36	20	25	9	318
Junior Lecturer	5	1	1		2			9
Grand Total	116	140	162	205	157	146	163	1089

Source: Seamount University Institutional Planning Department, 2018

Appendix B Higher Education Governance

Table B1 summarises the key developments in the periods 1994–2000, 2001–2008, and 2009–2014, respectively. This document is based entirely on the work of Lange and Luescher-Mamashela (2016)

Table B1 *Outline of Key Developments since 1994*

1994 to 2000:
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Two important policy documents: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - National Commission on Higher Education's (NCHE) 1996 report "A framework for transformation" - the Department of Education's (DOE) White Paper 3 in 1997. •Unintended consequences of the strong focus on addressing the government imperatives of "access, equity, and redress": <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - "the expansion of distance education programmes at contact institutions; - the public-private partnerships in the offering of certain programmes"; and - "the growing debt of many historically black institutions and the need for the state to bail out institutions in financial crisis" (p. 114) •Promulgation of the Higher Education Act of 1997: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - together with relevant policy and the "Institutional Statute and Rules" of each institution, determined the composition, functions and responsibilities of the core governance structures. •1999 Higher Education Amendment Act: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - indicated growing state intervention, and confirmed "that ultimate responsibility for addressing institutional failure would be with government" (p. 117).
2001-2008
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •National Plan 2001: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - acknowledged the failure of previous initiatives toward effective implementation required to achieve the goal of the 1997 White Paper. - Proposed a major restructuring of the higher education landscape, involving the mergers of certain institutions with others, and a reclassification of the types of institutions. •Growing concern with efficiency and effectiveness and, consequently, with a much more top-down and less participative form of governance at system level, and, at the same time, as a period of increased policy activity" (p. 117). •Various steering mechanisms in the areas of funding, planning and quality assurance •Institutions having less autonomy or "conditional autonomy": <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - managerialism creeping in at the institutional level: entailing "management by strategic plan; - new centralised organs of decision-making; streamlined governance committee systems; - flatter administrative structures linked to a stronger central leadership core; - decentralised budgeting with departments becoming cost-centres; - the development of management information systems; and, finally, explicit training for administrators and managers" (p. 122). •Institutional autonomy and academic freedom in higher education task team established •New Minister of Education brings a "period of consolidation" in terms of policy-making •Higher Education Qualifications Framework was the only significant policy development •Higher Education Quality Committee (HEQC) audits were undertaken. These audits conceivably provided the foundation for what the authors refer to as "a model of knowledge-based higher education governance, leadership and management at institutional level" (p. 125). •Higher Education Quality Committee (HEQC) audits: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Audits provided foundation for what the authors refer to as "a model of knowledge-based higher education governance, leadership and management at institutional level" (p. 125).

Appendix B continued: Higher Education Governance

2009 to 2014

- Fundamental remodeling of government’s ministerial portfolios signaling a conceptual change in governance of the post-schooling education sector.
- Emphasis was now being placed on expanding the technical and vocational education and training sector, as well as on articulation between colleges and higher education (based on the high youth unemployment rate, and low participation rates in higher education)
- The White Paper for Post-School Education and Training (2013):
 - revisited the notion of differentiation in the university sector, together with indicators of how this might be planned and funded
 - New legislation assigned more power than before to the Ministry to intervene in institutional affairs, as well as demanding a host of new reporting requirements from the institutions.
 - The authors argued that the main apprehension felt by the universities was that of a “one size fits all” approach to university governance “that multiplies reporting obligations of all institutions instead of addressing problems where the problems arise” (p. 127).
- “Stakeholderisation” at the system and institutional level:
 - At the system level, government began forging independent channels of communication with internal higher education role players instead of communicating with the institutions directly.
 - At the institutional level was seen through factionalism in governance councils, including the misunderstood role played by unions and students sitting in these councils, compromising their fiduciary responsibilities.
- Transformation Oversight Committee was set up, which has added yet another layer of accountability.

Appendix C Student Body: Key Statistics

Table C1 *Headcount Enrolment by Race*

Race	2007		2016	
African	476,768	63%	701,482	72%
Coloured	49,069	6%	61,963	6%
Indian	52,596	7%	50,450	5%
White	180,463	24%	152,489	16%
Unknown	2,194	0%	9,453	1%
Total	761,090	100%	975,837	100%

Sources: CHE 2014, 2018

Table C2 *Headcount Enrolment by Gender*

Gender	2007		2016	
Male	338,549	44%	408,706	42%
Female	422,541	56%	567,131	58%
	761,090	100%	975,837	100%

Sources: CHE 2014, 2018

Table C3 *Headcount Enrolment by Field of Study in 2015*

Field of Study	No. of Enrolments	
Business & Commerce	273,828	28%
Education	170,550	17%
Humanities	245,899	25%
Science, Engineering & Technology	294,935	30%
Total	985,212	100%

Source: CHE, 2017

Staff divided over protests

UKZN staff, academics picket outside PMB campus in support of #FeesMustFall campaign

**AMIL UMRAW
and KAILENE PILLAY**

WHILE protests at universities in the province have largely quietened down, staff at various institutions remain divided over the #FeesMustFall campaign.

Staff and academics at the University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN) yesterday stood in solidarity with the #FeesMustFall campaign, peacefully picketing outside the Pietermaritzburg campus.

The group of about 50 staff displayed banners and posters calling for better government funding of higher education, the release of students who have

been arrested, and an end to violence on campuses across the country.

Dubbed the "Academics' National Day of Action", the small picket was joined by a group of students who sang struggle songs as their lecturers urged passing motorists to hoot in support of their campaign.

However, not all staff shared the same views, with some who spoke to *Weekend Witness* slating the students' campaign as "violent" and "destructive".

Late on Thursday afternoon, a small group of students at the Pietermaritzburg campus attempted to disrupt a lecture at the Students' Union exam venue

by using slingshots to hurl marbles at the building's glass windows.

Police and private security intervened and the protesters scattered.

Police national commissioner Lieutenant-General Khomotso Phahlane yesterday reaffirmed in a press release that officers would continue to arrest students who break the law.

"Young people are discouraged from making themselves guilty of any offence which will possibly have far-reaching implications on their future and employment opportunities," Phahlane said.

He said police were in-

vestigating information which suggests the #FeesMustFall initiative has been "infiltrated" by others with agendas not aligned with those who seek free education.

"The agenda of those with ulterior motives is to provoke the police to the point where there are fatalities in attempts to create another Marikana.

"This and other information at our disposal is being followed up and those involved will be dealt with accordingly," Phahlane said.

"The police will continue to exercise maximum restraint and manage the attacks and provocation

within the confines of the law.

"We will endeavour to protect lives and property in accordance with our constitutional mandate."

• amilumraw@witness.co.za

Source: Umraw, A., & Pillay, K. (2016, October 10). Staff divided over protests: UKZN staff, academics picket outside PMB campus in support of #FeesMustFall campaign. *Weekend Witness*.

Appendix E Organisational Commitment Literature

Summary of Seminal Work from the 1960s to 2014	
Theorist(s)	Title
1960 – 1968	
HS Becker (1960)	Notes on the concept of commitment
Gouldner (1960)	Dimensions of organisational commitment
Etzioni (1961)	A comparative analysis of complex organisations
Kanter (1968)	Commitment and social organization: A study of commitment mechanisms in utopian communities
1970 - 1979	
Hrebiniak & Alutto (1972)	Personal and role-related factors in the development of organizational commitment
Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian (1974)	Organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover among psychiatric technicians
Buchanan (1974)	Building organizational commitment: The socialization of managers in work organizations
Steers (1977)	Antecedents and outcomes of organizational commitment
Mowday, Steers, & Porter (1979)	The measurement of organizational commitment
1980 - 1997	
Morrow (1983)	Concept redundancy in organizational research: The case of work commitment
Reichers (1985)	A review and reconceptualization of organizational commitment
O'Reilly and Chatman (1986)	Organizational commitment and psychological attachment: The effects of compliance, identification, and internalization on prosocial behavior
Allen & Meyer (1990)	The measurement and antecedents of affective, continuance and normative commitment to the organization
Meyer & Allen (1991)	A three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment
Lawler (1992)	Affective attachments to nested groups: A choice-process theory
Becker (1992)	Foci and bases of commitment: Are they distinctions worth making?
	Commitment in the workplace
Meyer & Allen (1997)	
2000-2014	
Meyer & Herscovitch (2001)	Affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organisation: A meta-analysis of antecedents, correlates, and consequences
McElroy, Morrow, & Lacznia (2001)	External Organisational Commitment
Meyer, Stanley, Hercovitch, & Topolnytsky (2002)	Affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization: A meta-analysis of antecedents, correlates, and consequences
Cohen, 2003	Multiple commitments in the workplace: An integrative approach
Liden, Wayne, Kraimer, & Sparrowe (2003)	The dual commitments of contingent workers: An examination of contingents' commitment to the agency and the organization
Meyer, Becker, Vandenberghe (2004)	Employee commitment and motivation: a conceptual analysis and integrative model
Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran (2005)	The construct of work commitment: testing an integrative framework
Klein, Brinsfield, & Molloy (2006)	Understanding workplace commitments independent of antecedents, foci, rationales, and consequences
Van Dick, Becker, and Meyer (2006)	Commitment and identification: Forms, foci, and future
Klein, Becker, & Meyer (2009)	Commitment in organizations: Accumulated wisdom and new directions
Klein, Molloy, & Brinsfield (2012)	Reconceptualizing workplace commitment to redress a stretched construct: Revisiting assumptions and removing confounds
Klein, Cooper, Molloy, Swanson (2014)	The assessment of commitment: Advantages of a unidimensional, target-free approach

Appendix F Representativeness of the Survey Sample

Table F1 *Gender - Survey Sample versus Target Population*

	Target Population	Sample
Female	48%	46%
Male	52%	50%
Unknown*		4%
*Prefer not to answer		

Table F2 *Age - Survey Sample versus Target Population*

	Target Population	Sample
18 to 24	3%	1%
25 to 34	19%	12%
35 to 44	28%	29%
45 to 54	24%	31%
55 to 64	19%	20%
65 to 74	5%	5%
75 or older	1%	2%

Table F3 *Race/Ethnicity: - Survey Sample versus Target Population*

	Target Population	Sample
African	13%	8%
Coloured	12%	4%
Indian or Asian	7%	4%
White	66%	66%
Unknown*	3%	18%
*Prefer not to answer		

Appendix G Construct Scale items

Affective Commitment

For each of the questions below, please indicate to what extent you disagree or agree with the statement.

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career at Seamount
2. I feel as if the challenges facing Seamount are my own challenges
3. I do not feel like “part of the family” at Seamount
4. I do not feel “emotionally attached” to Seamount
5. Seamount has a great deal of personal meaning for me
6. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to Seamount

Organisational Identification

For each of the questions below, please indicate to what extent you disagree or agree with the statement.

1. When someone criticises Seamount, it feels like a personal insult
2. When I talk about Seamount, I usually say 'we' rather than 'they'
3. I am very interested in what others think about Seamount
4. I view Seamount's successes as my successes
5. If a story in the media criticizes Seamount, I feel embarrassed
6. When someone praises Seamount, it feels like a personal compliment

Perceived Organisational Support

For each of the questions below, please indicate to what extent you disagree or agree with the statement.

1. Seamount takes pride in my accomplishments at work
2. Seamount really cares about my well-being
3. Seamount strongly considers my goals and values
4. Seamount values my contribution to its reputation and success
5. Seamount is willing to help me when I am faced with special or difficult circumstances

Perceived External Reputation

On a scale of 0 - 10, where 0 is Poor, and 10 is Excellent, how do you feel people outside Seamount would rate it on the following attributes?

1. Quality of Seamount management's leadership
2. Seamount as an innovative organisation
3. Seamount's ability to attract, develop, and retain faculty
4. Seamount's responsibility towards the community and the environment
5. Quality of Seamount's research and teaching

Appendix H Survey Invitation Email: Covering Letter

Dear Faculty Member,

Thank you for your time. I'm writing to ask for your help with an online survey I'm carrying out to explore the effect of Seamount University's standing and reputation on faculty commitment. This survey forms part of a research project that is being conducted in fulfilment of the requirements for the PhD degree, under the auspices of the University of Cape Town. *Your participation matters!*

The questionnaire takes **less than 10 minutes** to complete. Please respond to each question based on your perceptions. Once you have completed the questionnaire, kindly click on 'DONE' at the bottom of the last page to submit your responses.

I would be grateful if you could complete the online survey no later than **31 March 2017**.

Kindly note that this research has been approved by the Commerce Faculty Ethics in Research Committee. Your participation in this research is voluntary. Although you will be asked to provide some demographic information, all responses will be confidential and used for the purposes of this research only. Please be assured that anonymity is guaranteed; all responses will be aggregated. Furthermore, you can withdraw from the research at any time.

Here is the [link](https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/TLF8K2C) to the survey: <https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/TLF8K2C>

Should you have any comments or questions, please feel free to contact the researcher:

Beverly Shrand,
PhD Student
Graduate School of Business (GSB)
University of Cape Town (UCT)
Email: shrbev004@gsb.uct.ac.za
Cell: 082 876 9430

With enormous gratitude in advance for your participation.

Sincerely,

[signature]

Ms. Beverly Shrand

Appendix I Reminder Covering Letter

Dear Faculty Member,

I refer to an email I sent you a while ago regarding my PhD research that explores the effect of Seamount University's standing and reputation on faculty commitment.

If you have already completed my online survey, please accept my sincere gratitude for your support and ignore the rest of this email. However, if you have not yet completed my survey, I'm asking for your help: your input is important.

The questionnaire takes **less than 10 minutes** to complete and the final date for responses is **30 April 2017**.

Here is the survey link: <https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/TLF8K2C>

This research has been approved by the Commerce Faculty Ethics in Research Committee and your participation is voluntary. Although you will be asked to provide some demographic information, all responses will be confidential and used for the purposes of this research only. Please be assured that anonymity is guaranteed; all responses will be aggregated. Furthermore, you can withdraw from the research at any time.

Should you have any comments or questions, please feel free to contact the researcher:

Beverly Shrand,
PhD Student
Graduate School of Business (GSB)
University of Cape Town (UCT)
Email: shrbev004@gsb.uct.ac.za
Cell: 082 876 9430

Once again, thank you for your time.

Sincerely,

[signature]

Ms. Beverly Shrand

Appendix J Histograms, Normal Q-Q Plots and Box Plots

Table I1 *Affective Commitment (AC) Items*

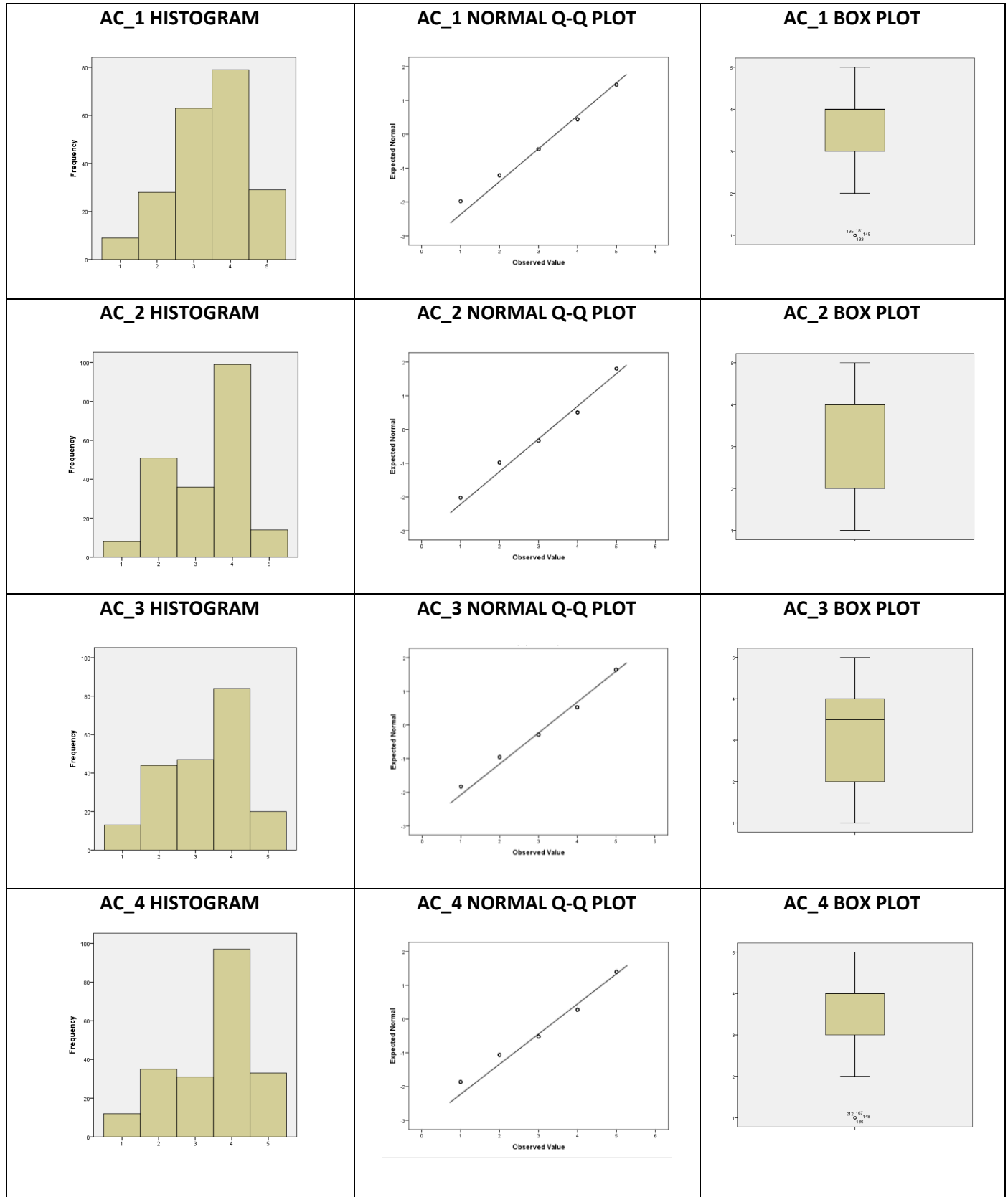


Table I1 Affective Commitment (AC) Items (cont.)

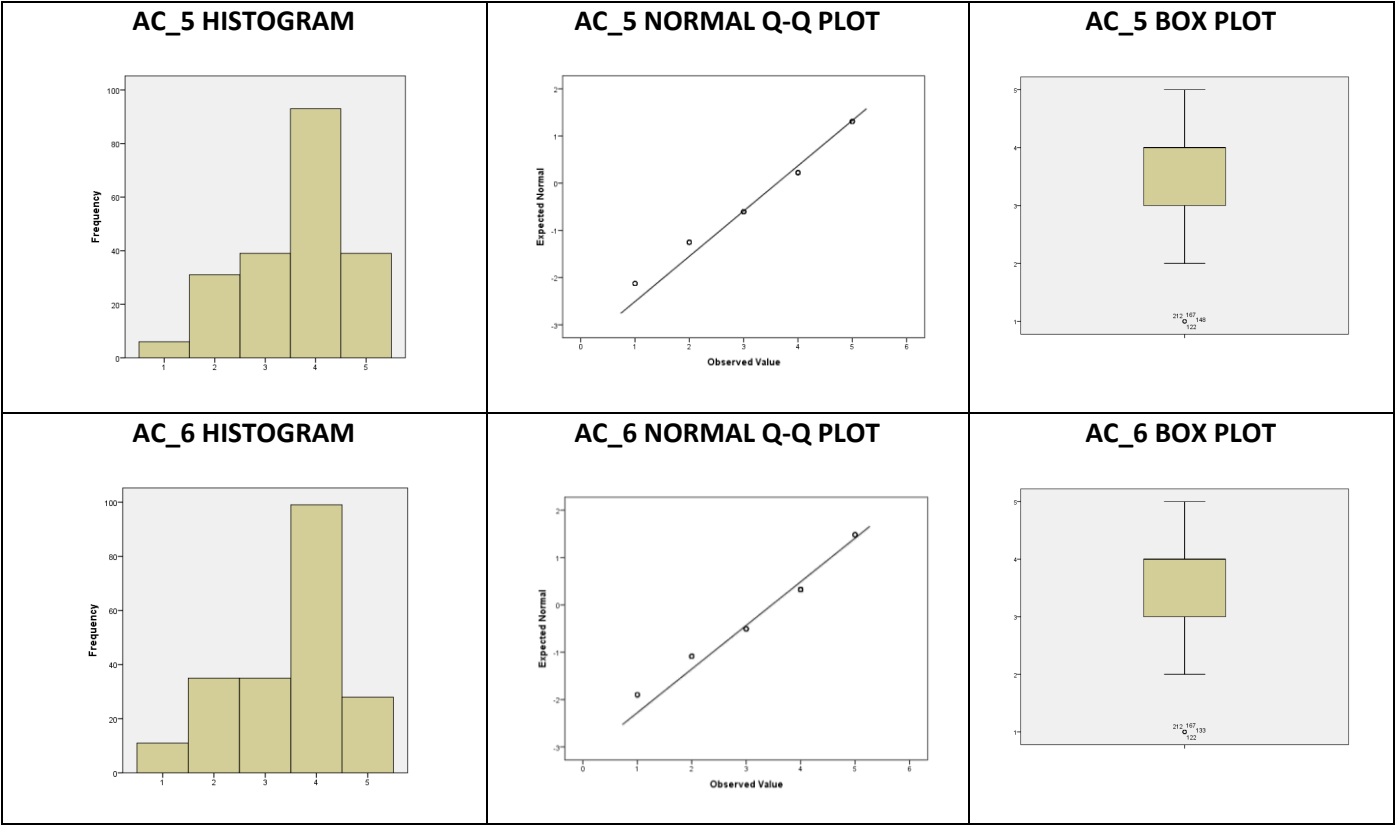


Table I2 Organisational Identification (OID) Items

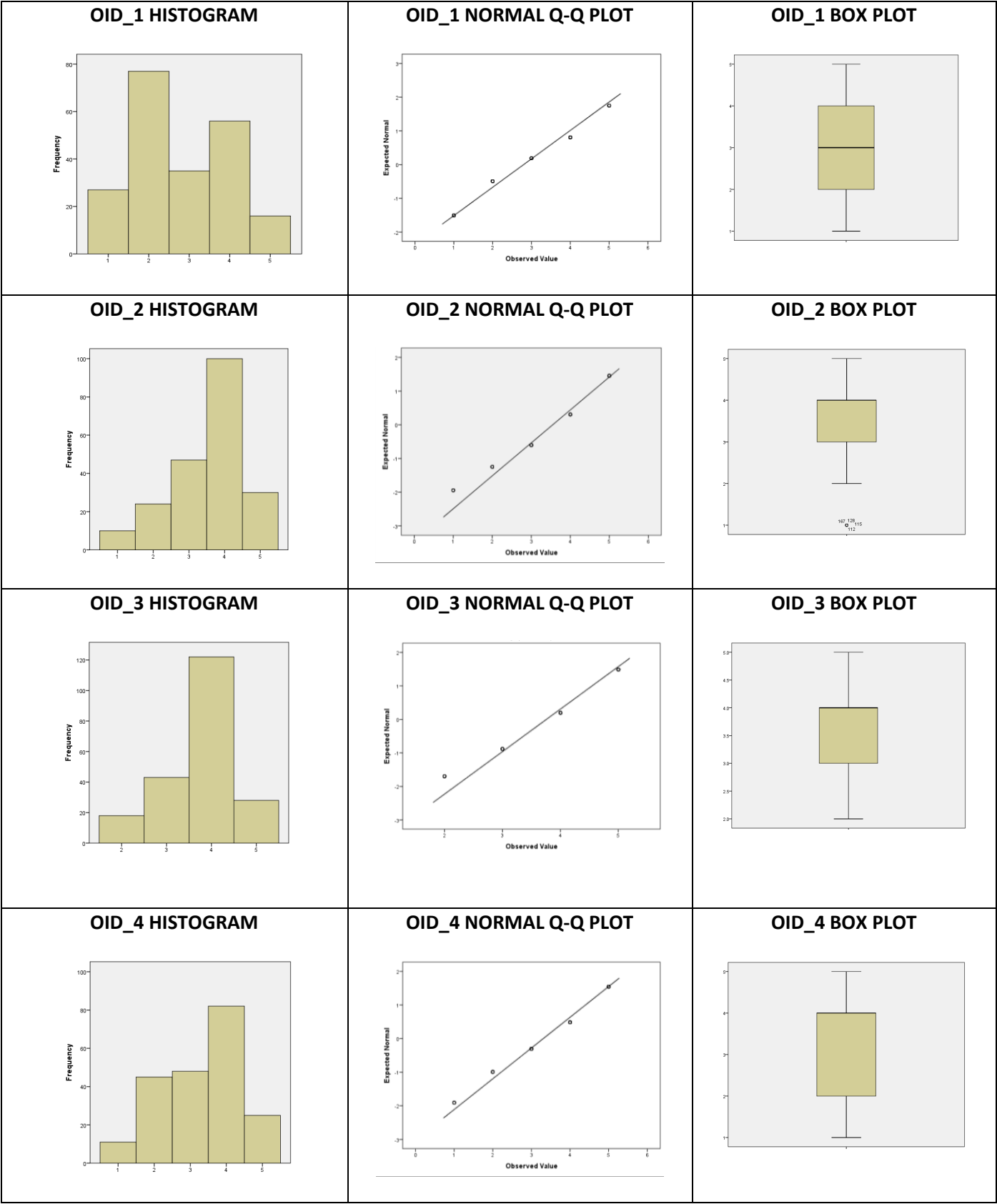


Table I2 Organisational Identification (OID) Items (cont.)

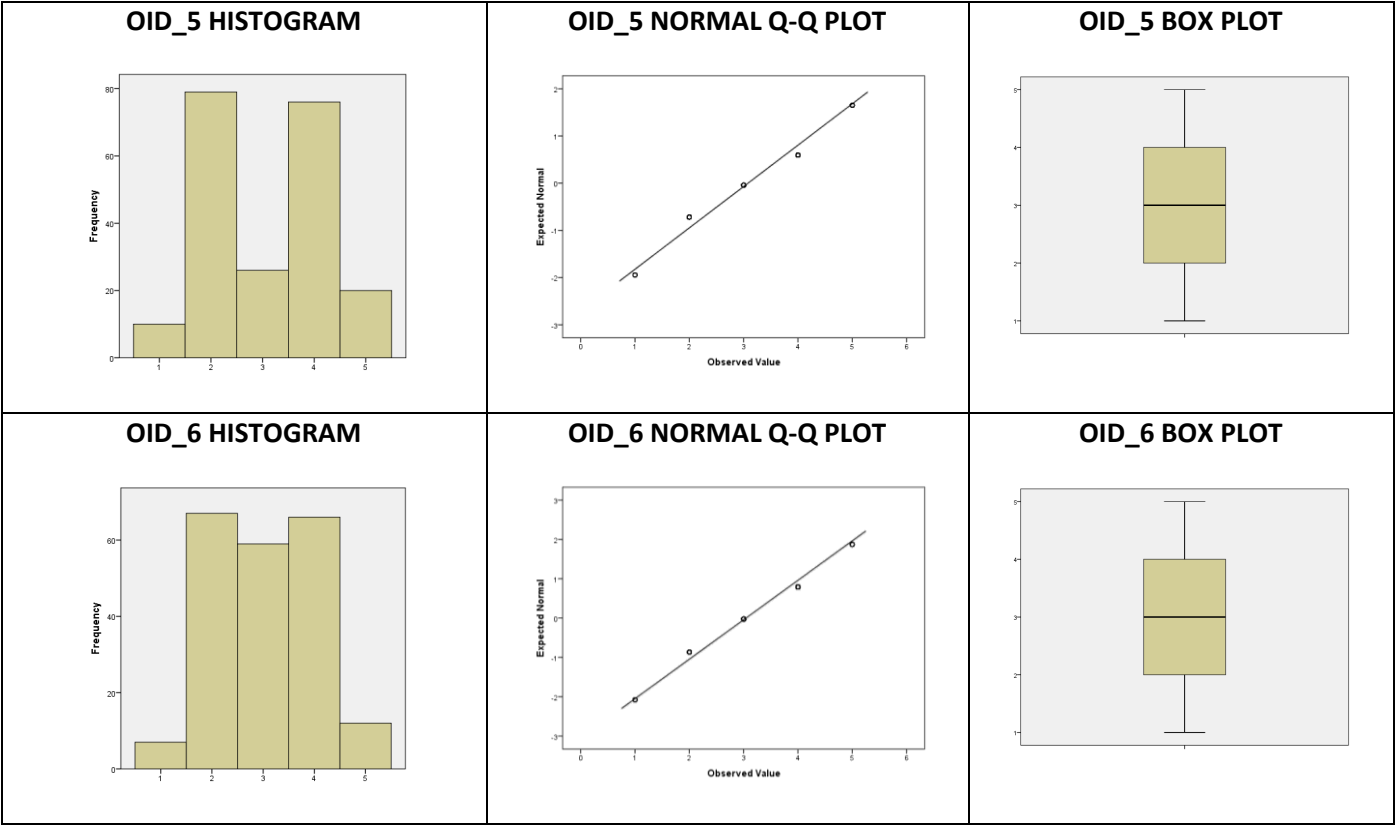


Table I3 *Perceived Organisational Support (POS) Items*

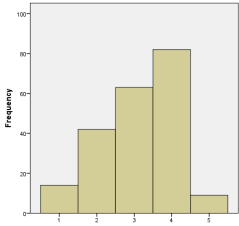
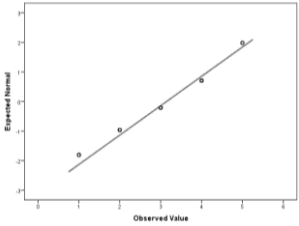
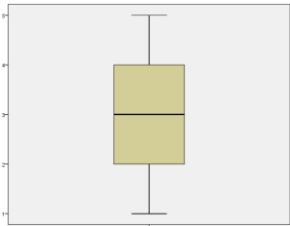
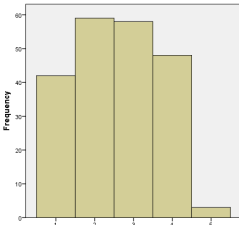
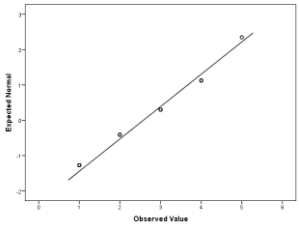
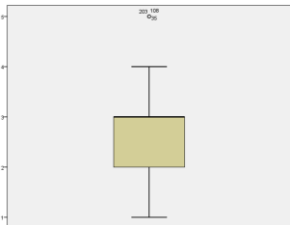
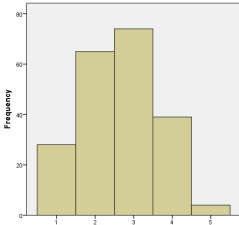
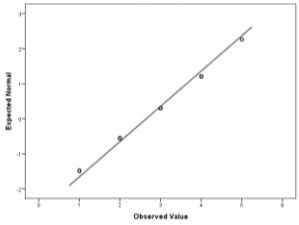
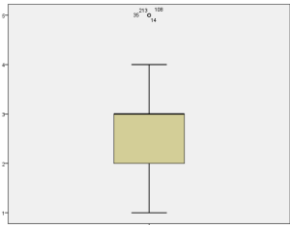
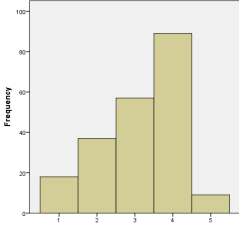
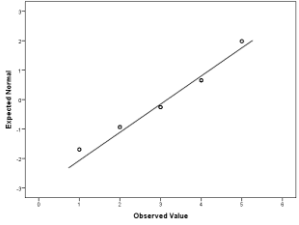
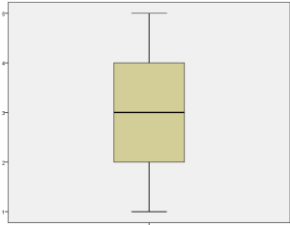
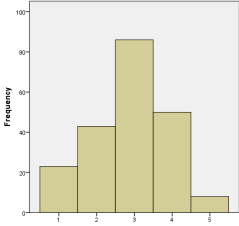
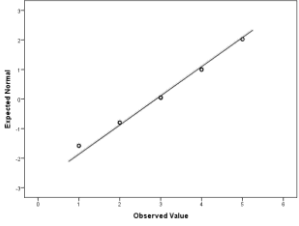
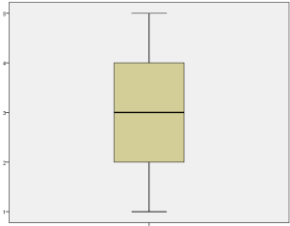
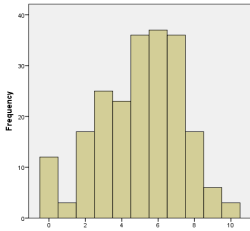
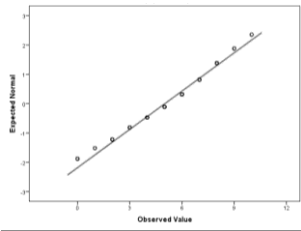
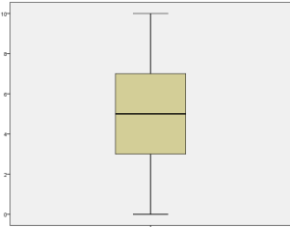
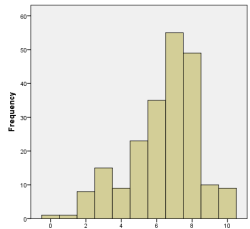
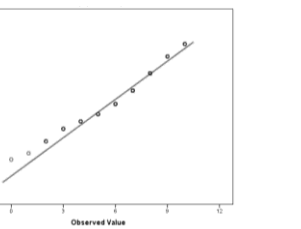
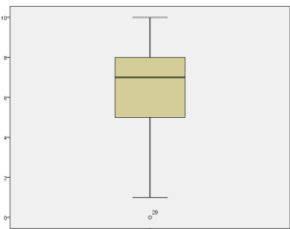
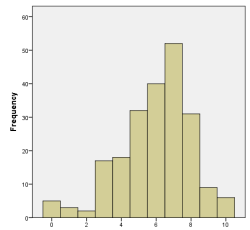
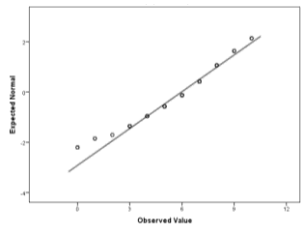
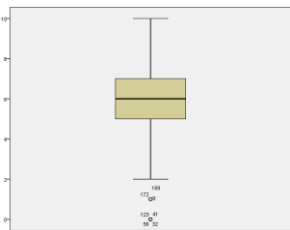
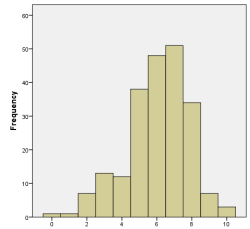
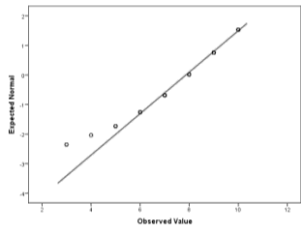
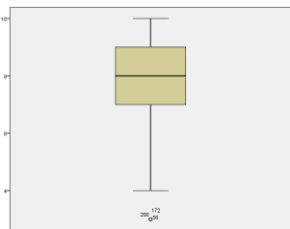
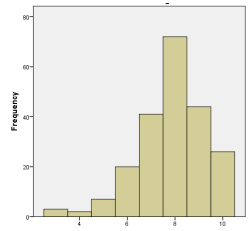
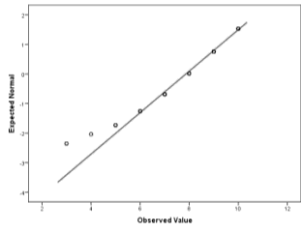
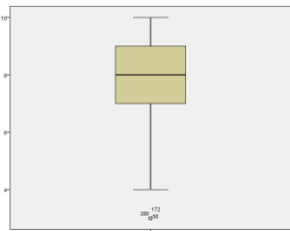
<p>POS_1 HISTOGRAM</p> 	<p>POS_1 NORMAL Q-Q PLOT</p> 	<p>POS_1 BOX PLOT</p> 
<p>POS_2 HISTOGRAM</p> 	<p>POS_2 NORMAL Q-Q PLOT</p> 	<p>POS_2 BOX PLOT</p> 
<p>POS_3 HISTOGRAM</p> 	<p>POS_3 NORMAL Q-Q PLOT</p> 	<p>POS_3 BOX PLOT</p> 
<p>POS_4 HISTOGRAM</p> 	<p>POS_4 NORMAL Q-Q PLOT</p> 	<p>POS_4 BOX PLOT</p> 
<p>POS_5 HISTOGRAM</p> 	<p>POS_5 NORMAL Q-Q PLOT</p> 	<p>POS_5 BOX PLOT</p> 

Table I4 *Perceived External Reputation (PER) Items*

<p>PER_1 HISTOGRAM</p> 	<p>PER_1 NORMAL Q-Q PLOT</p> 	<p>PER_1 BOX PLOT</p> 
<p>PER_2 HISTOGRAM</p> 	<p>PER_2 NORMAL Q-Q PLOT</p> 	<p>PER_2 BOX Q-Q PLOT</p> 
<p>PER_3 HISTOGRAM</p> 	<p>PER_3 NORMAL Q-Q PLOT</p> 	<p>PER_3 BOX PLOT</p> 
<p>PER_4 HISTOGRAM</p> 	<p>PER_4 NORMAL Q-Q PLOT</p> 	<p>PER_4 BOX PLOT</p> 
<p>PER_5 HISTOGRAM</p> 	<p>PER_5 NORMAL Q-Q PLOT</p> 	<p>PER_5 BOX PLOT</p> 

Appendix K Profile of Interviewees

Table J1 *Interviewee Demographics (sorted by AC mean score in ascending order)*

AC Mean Score	Gender	Race / Ethnicity	Academic Status	Length of Service (years)	Age
1.50	Male	White	Senior Lecturer	15	35 to 44
1.50	Male	White	Professor	41	65 to 74
1.67	Male	White	Senior Lecturer	3	45 to 54
2.50	Male	White	Senior Lecturer	3	55 to 64
2.67	Female	Asian	Lecturer	0.5	25 to 34
2.67	Female	White	Professor	12	45 to 54
2.67	Female	White	Senior Lecturer	10	45 to 54
3.00	Female	White	Senior Lecturer	3	45 to 54
3.50	Female	Coloured	Senior Lecturer	8	35 to 44
4.00	Male	White	Professor	16	55 to 64
4.33	Female	White	Assoc. Professor	22	55 to 64
4.50	Male	Coloured	Professor	15	45 to 54
4.67	Male	Coloured	Assoc. Professor	12	45 to 54
4.83	Male	African	Lecturer	15	45 to 54
5.00	Female	African	Lecturer	4	25 to 34

Appendix L Interview Protocol

Interview Protocol
Exploring the effects of academics' Perceived Organisational Support and Perceived External Reputation on Organisational Identification and Affective Commitment
PREAMBLE
Express Gratitude: Thank you for your willingness to be interviewed; I'm grateful for your time.
Purpose of study: As you know from having completed my survey, I'm exploring the effect of Seamount University's external reputation on the commitment of its faculty. I'd also like to unpack some of the reasons for trends that I've picked up in my survey.
Obtain informed consent: I would like to ask for your informed consent. Would you mind reading and agreeing to the following? [Hand over laminated copy of the informed consent document.]
Are you happy to go ahead, and may I begin recording? May I record your consent? IF "YES", START RECORDING
Preliminary Check-in: Do <u>you</u> have any questions before we begin?
TOPIC QUESTIONS
1. Let's talk about your work experience at Seamount University <ul style="list-style-type: none">You've been working at Seamount University for ____ years now. [Confirm]Has anything significant changed in your experience of working here over this period?What do you like about working here?What do you dislike?
2. Now I would like us to talk about Reputation in the context of a university: [show "Dimensions of Reputation" laminated handout] <ul style="list-style-type: none">In the survey, I explored Seamount University's external reputation in terms of several dimensions — refer to handout: "Research & Teaching", "Innovativeness", "Quality of Management's Leadership", "Social Responsibility", and "Ability to Attract and Retain Faculty".Please rank which of these aspects of Seamount University's reputation with

<p>outsiders are important to you as an academic.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How does what other people think about Seamount University affect the way you feel about working here?
<p>3. Next, I'd like us to talk about Organisational Support:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How do you feel about the support you receive from Seamount University? • Can you describe the support you get from the university? <p>[If they need help, elaborate on what is meant by Organisational Support: "Here I'm referring to feeling that you and your contributions are valued, that Seamount will help you in difficult circumstances, or that your goals and values are considered, or that Seamount takes pride in your work?]</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • My survey results show that some faculty do not feel strongly supported by the institution. Can you comment on this?
<p>4. Next, let's talk about what it means to you to be a member of Seamount:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How important is it to you to be a member of Seamount University? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Why specifically? • How does what outsiders think of Seamount University affect the way you feel about belonging to it? • How do you feel when outsiders or the media criticise or insult Seamount? • My survey results suggest that when the media or any other outsiders Seamount, around 40% of the faculty don't take it personally. What do you think about that finding?
<p>5. Moving on to how Committed you feel as a faculty member of Seamount University:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What does commitment to Seamount University mean to you? • How would you describe your <i>feelings</i> toward Seamount University?

6. Conclusion:

- Are there any other issues that you think are important in the context of this study that we haven't discussed?
- If there is anything I would like to get clarification on at a later stage, would it be okay to contact you again?
- Thank you once again for agreeing to be interviewed and for your valuable time.
- Would you like me to send you a summary of the findings?

[STOP RECORDING]



5 Dimensions of External Reputation

- ▶ Quality of Institution's Management's Leadership
- ▶ Innovativeness (Institution as an innovative organisation)
- ▶ Institution's Ability to Attract, Develop and Retain Faculty
- ▶ Responsibility towards the Community and Environment
- ▶ Quality of Research & Teaching

Appendix N Invitation to be Prospective Interviewees

Subject line: PhD Follow-Up Interview

Dear [Title/Position and Name]

Thank you once again for responding to my online survey a while ago regarding the effect of Seamount's reputation on the commitment of its faculty. I am writing to set up a meeting, as you indicated your willingness to be interviewed in the qualitative phase of the study.

Please let me know your availability for a 30–45 minute interview.

Many thanks; I look forward to hearing from you.

Regards,
Beverly Shrand

Appendix O Informed Consent Form

<p style="text-align: center;">INFORMED CONSENT FORM</p> <p style="text-align: center;"><u>Purpose of Study:</u></p> <p style="text-align: center;">Exploring the effects of academics' Perceived Organisational Support and Perceived External Reputation on Organisational Identification and Affective Commitment</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">Interviewer: Beverly Shrand</p>

Please read the following:

1. Our discussion and the data from it will be treated as **confidential** and **anonymous**.
2. All findings will be aggregated and your name will not be associated with any of the data.
3. Your participation in this interview is entirely voluntary and you may withdraw at any time.
4. The findings from this interview will be used for my doctoral research.
5. The interview is designed to take approximately 30–45 minutes, however, the actual time required may be shorter or longer, depending on your preference.
6. Our conversation will be recorded.
7. Please feel free to share only what you feel comfortable sharing.

If you're happy to proceed with the interview, kindly let me have your verbal consent

Appendix P Preliminary Coding from Interview Protocol

Question and sub-questions	Related Construct	<i>A priori</i> coding themes
Which of these five aspects of Seamount University's reputation do you think are most important?	Perceived External Reputation (PER) (focus on the measure)	Most important PER dimension(s)
Does what outsiders think about Seamount University matter to you?	Perceived External Reputation (PER) (focus on feelings)	Salience of PER
How would you describe the impact on Seamount University's reputation due to the student protests?		Impact of FMF
How would you describe the support you get from Seamount University?	Perceived Organisational Support (POS)	Positive descriptions of POS
		Negative descriptions of POS
What does it mean to you to be a member of Seamount University?	Organisational Identification (OID)	Significance of organisational membership
How do you feel when outsiders or the media insult or criticise Seamount University?		Reaction to outsiders' or media criticism
Survey results re other outsiders' criticism		Why (other) respondents don't take criticism personally
How would you describe your commitment to Seamount University?	Affective Organisational Commitment (AC)	Descriptions of affective commitment
What do you like about working at Seamount University?		Possible drivers of affective commitment
What do you dislike about working at Seamount University?		Possible barriers to affective commitment
What about working here has significantly changed for you over time?		Shifts over time

Appendix Q Ethical Clearance Approval Letter



Faculty of Commerce

Private Bag X3, Rondebosch, 7701

2.26 Leslie Commerce Building, Upper Campus

Tel: +27 (0) 21 650 4375/ 5748 Fax: +27 (0) 21 650 4369

E-mail: com-faculty@uct.ac.za

Internet: www.uct.ac.za



@Commerce_UCT



UCT Commerce Faculty Office

05 September 2016

Ms Beverly Shrand
Graduate School of Business
University of Cape Town

Dear Ms Shrand

Project: How does Perceived External Reputation influence Organisational Commitment?

Thank you for submitting your study to the Faculty of Commerce Ethics in Research Committee.

It is a pleasure to inform you that the EiRC has **formally approved** the above-mentioned study.

Approval is granted for the period of 12 months. Should you require an extension or make any substantial changes to the research methodology which could affect the experiences of participants, you must submit a revised protocol to the Committee for approval.

Please note that the ongoing ethical conduct of the study remains the responsibility of the principal investigator.

Your sincerely

SAMANTHA ALEXANDER
Administrative Assistant
University of Cape Town
Commerce Faculty Office
Room 2.24 | Leslie Commerce Building

Office Telephone: +27 (0)21 650 2695

Office Fax: +27 (0)21 650 4369

E-mail: samantha.alexander@uct.ac.za

Website: www.commerce.uct.ac.za<<http://www.commerce.uct.ac.za/>>

“Our Mission is to be an outstanding teaching and research university, educating for life and addressing the challenges facing our society.”

Appendix R Consolidated Joint Display Table

Overall Mean & SD	Themes & Quotes from Qualitative Findings
AC: $\bar{x} = 3.43$; $\sigma_{\bar{x}} = 0.803$	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Alignment of Values <i>I'm working in the right place because all our work seeks to contribute to upliftment of society.</i> Work Experience/Environment - Positive <i>The top thing about working at Seamount University is the freedom of my time.</i> <i>... an opportunity to collaborate with a whole lot of different things.</i> Work Experience/Environment - Negative <i>Administrative loads are being progressively devolved and stealing research time.</i> Sentimental Ties <i>Seamount University is my home. Ten years...I've been through ups and downs with this place.</i> Non-organisational Commitment Targets <i>My commitment is to who I work with...</i> <i>Commitment means doing my job properly and to the best of my ability.</i> Institutional Characteristics <i>...I suppose like any large bureaucracy it's an inflexible institution.</i>
OID: $\bar{x} = 3.26$; $\sigma_{\bar{x}} = 0.716$	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Nostalgic/Idealistic Associations <i>I came to Seamount University because it was standing up against apartheid...</i> No Personal History with the Institution <i>I don't feel a deep sense of belonging because I didn't do my undergraduate studies here.</i> Pride in Membership <i>When you tell people that you're an academic at Seamount University...there is a kind of legitimacy in society that comes with that.</i> Occupation, Role or Discipline Identification <i>... our identity as academics is wrapped up in what we do...</i> Fragmented Institution <i>Like any big institution, Seamount University's massive... I do think about the broader university, but not as a whole university.</i> <i>We're not quite sure what Seamount University stands for at this point.</i>

Overall Mean & SD	Themes & Quotes from Qualitative Findings
POS: $\bar{x} = 2.88$; $\sigma_{\bar{x}} = 1.140$	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Not Feeling Valued or Not Equally Valued <p><i>If you want to come to work every day and be told you're valued, you are in the wrong profession altogether.</i> <i>You know that there are people who are getting big money to do their research. And I'm not.</i></p> Lack of Organisational Support <p><i>Many of us ... feel that the "University" does not have our back.</i> <i>I have the feeling that it makes no difference what I do.</i></p>
PER: $\bar{x} = 6.26$; $\sigma_{\bar{x}} = 0.861$	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Instrumental Value of Institution's Reputation <p><i>You get a foot in the door because of the university's reputation.</i></p> Role of Career Stage <p><i>...But through your career, as you grow your own reputation, it becomes less of an institutional reputation, and more about your own personal reputation.</i></p>